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ABSTRACT

This report on vocational training in the United Kingdom (UK) contains a general introduction, eight chapters, and two appendices. Chapter 1 describes the population of the UK, including the labor force, unemployment, and youth employment. Chapter 2 describes the economy of the UK. Chapter 3 describes initial education and training in the UK, including compulsory education, postcompulsory education, higher education, and work-based training programs. Chapter 4 describes adult education and training. The historical development of the UK education and training system is described in Chapter 5. Roles and responsibilities in the UK's training system are identified in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 describes the financing of training. Chapter 8 provides future perspectives for the UK's system. Appendix 1 provides a 17-item bibliography. Appendix 2 provides a selected listing of organizations concerned with training. (CML)

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CEDEFOP

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on behalf of
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Vocational training in the United Kingdom

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Dear Readers,

The best way of promoting cooperation among the Member States of the Community in the field of vocational training is by promoting understanding of the various training systems. CEDEFOP has deployed a large portion of its resources with a view to improving an exchange of such information, not only by publishing monographs such as this but also by organizing conferences and seminars, producing audiovisual material and publishing a series of studies and documentary dossiers.

This monograph is intended to serve as a frame of reference providing the reader with a maximum of information on many aspects of vocational training – the legislative framework, funding, historical development, etc. Our objective here is to present a "dynamic" description placing the questions encountered in the field of vocational training in their proper economic, social and cultural context within the Member State under review.

This monograph serves as a basic document for a wide range of activities at the Centre, for example the establishment of comparability between vocational qualifications or in-depth studies of certain important aspects in the development of initial and continuing vocational training.

The text of this description was prepared in consultation with the social partners, and we hope that we have thereby maintained a position of objectivity which respects the opinions expressed by all the parties involves, i.e. the representatives of the governments of the Member States and of the two sides of industry.

Our publications describing the vocational training systems in the various Member States are based on a single structure, an approach which facilitates the work of comparing and contrasting respective system elements wherever comparison is possible.

All the monographs are available in the original language and at least two other Community languages.

During the course of 1987 the Directorate of the Centre will develop proposals for a new version of the CEDEFOP Guide to take account of the fact, firstly, that training systems undergo a process of change and, secondly, that from 1 January 1986 the Community has two new Member States.

The Centre extends its thanks to the authors for their collaboration.

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(Director)

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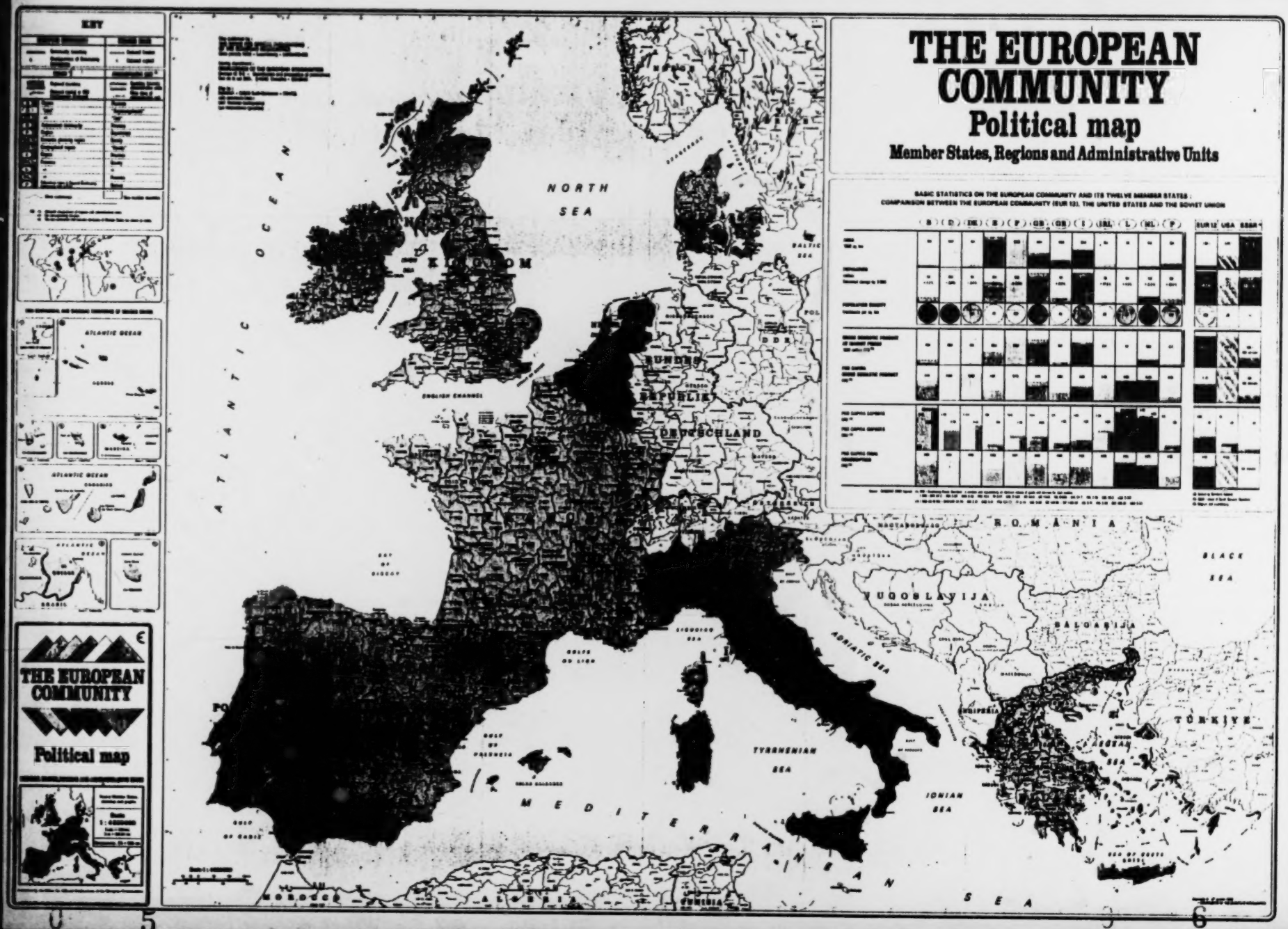
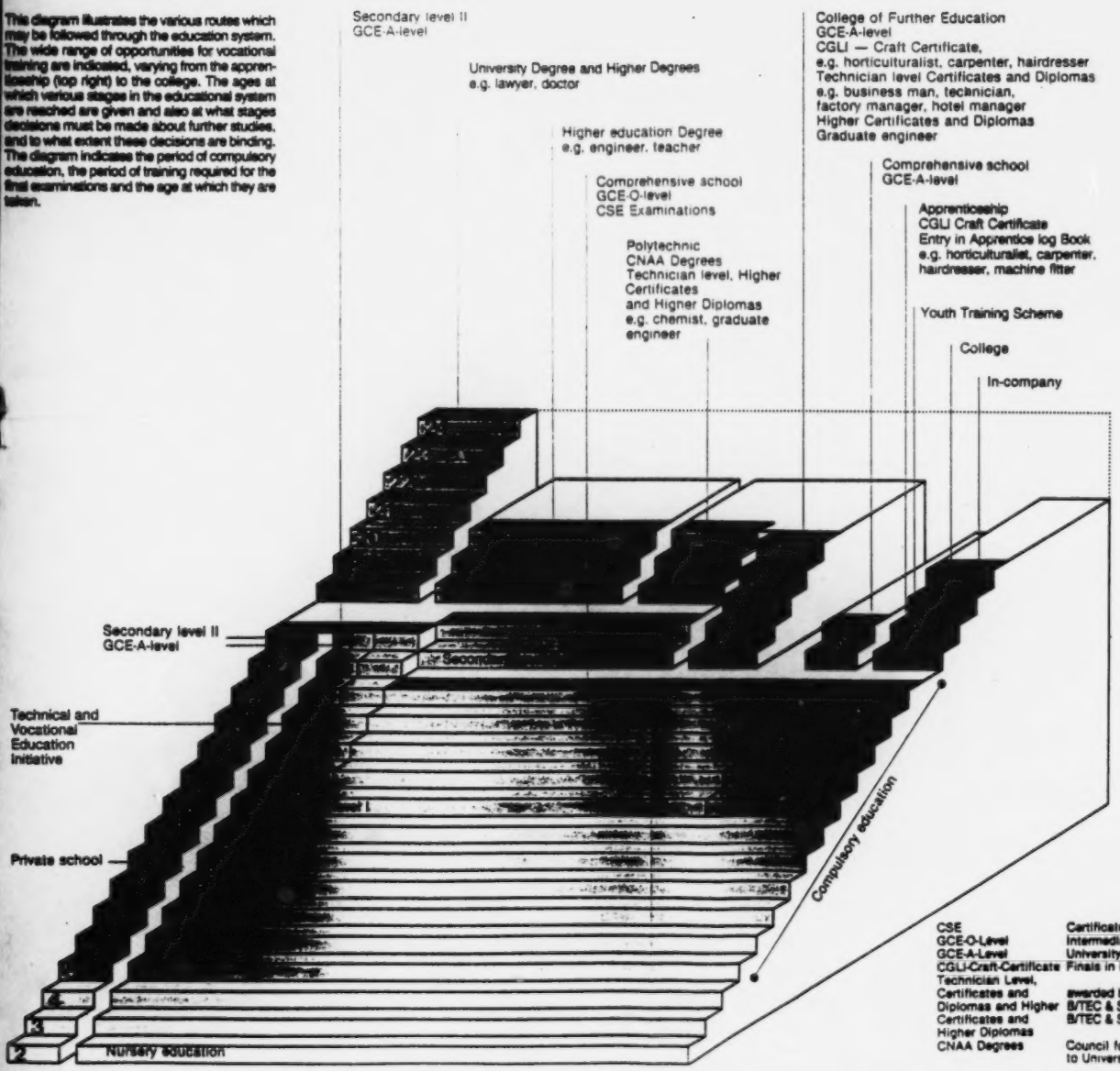

KEY
THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY
Political map
THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY
Political map
Member States, Regions and Administrative Units
BASIC STATISTICS ON THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY AND ITS TWELVE MEMBER STATES :
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY (EUR 12), THE UNITED STATES AND THE SOVIET UNION
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
DEUTSCHLAND
DDR
POL
ENGLISH CHANNEL
ROMANIA
BLACK SEA
YUGOSLAVIJA
ADRIATIC SEA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
TÜRKIYE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN

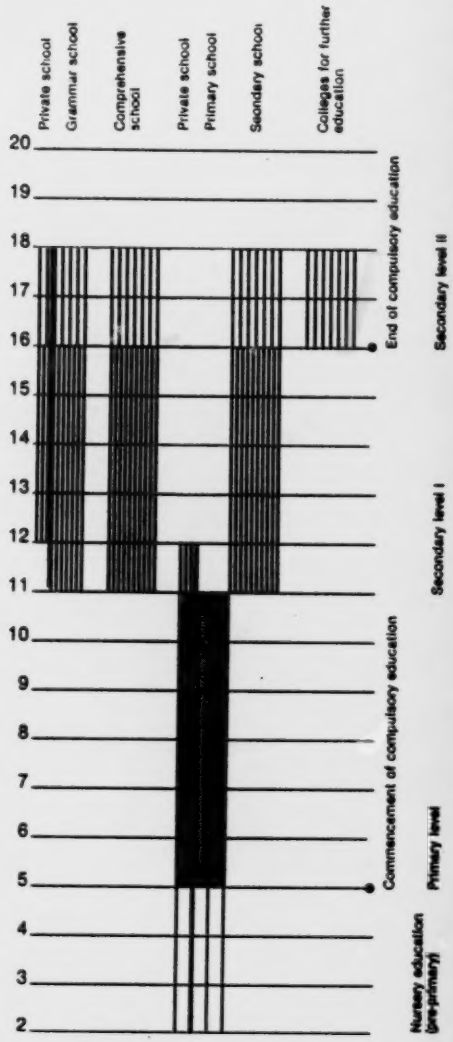
This diagram illustrates the various routes which may be followed through the education system. The wide range of opportunities for vocational training are indicated, varying from the apprenticeship (top right) to the college. The ages at which various stages in the educational system are reached are given and also at what stages decisions must be made about further studies, and to what extent these decisions are binding. The diagram indicates the period of compulsory education, the period of training required for the final examinations and the age at which they are taken.



CSE	Certificate of Secondary Education
GCE-O-Level	Intermediate Finals
GCE-A-Level	University Entrance
CGLI-Craft-Certificate	Finals in Manual Crafts
Technician Level, Certificates and Diplomas and Higher Certificates and Higher Diplomas	awarded by: B/TEC & SCOTVEC in commercial subjects B/TEC & SCOTVEC in technical subjects
CNAA Degrees	Council for National Academic Awards equivalent to University Degrees

This survey shows different paths available within the general educational system and the State-run vocational schools. Comparisons can be made between the commencement, duration and opportunities for choice in relation to age in each case.

Educational paths



Age structure

Age profile for the year 1975 and a projection to the year 2000
(At 30. 6. 1975 and for 2000 in each case)
(All over 75 years of age are combined into one group)

Source: Population statistics 1978, Table 11, Eurostat 1980.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION:

Setting the Scene

Since the publication of the first edition of this monograph in 1981 the United Kingdom's vocational education and training system has undergone major and radical change. Some of these ideas were briefly mentioned in this earlier edition but the intervening four years have seen remarkable advances in the UK's vocational training policy. Even now other developments are actively being considered such as those described in the final chapter. At best this revision can only be viewed as a 'snapshot' of a system continuing to undergo considerable change - changes started in 1981 with the publication of the government's New Training Initiative which originally set out a policy framework for vocational education and training for the decade and which has continued to be developed and expanded.

One of the most noticeable features in all this change has been the speed in which so many of the ideas, initially expressed in government policy papers have become operational realities. This alone is a considerable achievement given the diverse range of partners which make up the UK's system. The last five years have seen a willingness by both policy-makers and practioners alike to work together and to experiment with new forms of education and training provision.

At times even those living and working in the education and training field in the UK may well have been confused by this speed of change. Readers in other Member States may well find it more difficult to understand, what at the outset can first appear to be a set of complex and seemingly unrelated institutions, organisations and policies, whose only common quality is some vague connection with

vocational education and training. In practice the UK's education and training system comprises a set of inter-locking sub-systems involving a large number of partnerships operating at different levels. Its key characteristic is a rich and diversified pattern of provision which is the cumulative product of economic, social, historical and political pressures. Furthermore, there are not only differences at each educational and training level but also in the four countries that make up the United Kingdom.

A number of general principles however can be identified which cut through these differences:

- the wide variety of provision reflected by the many different kinds of education and training institutions;
- the sharing of responsibility for education and training between the partners involved;
- agreement reached by consensus or co-operation and as a consequence minimum government interference or legislation;
- the devolved nature of the system to ensure that local needs and circumstances can be adequately satisfied.

These principles become increasingly pronounced at each stage in the system, until at the adult vocational training level there is virtually complete freedom of action by the employer.

Before describing the system some background information about the United Kingdom in terms of its geography, demography and legislative base may be useful.

Geography

Britain, officially referred to as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, is made up of the four separate countries - England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, see figure one. The total land mass is 244,111 sq km (94,251 sq.miles) comprising.

England	130,440 sq.km
Wales	20,768 sq.km
Scotland	78,783 sq.km
Northern Ireland	14,120 sq.km

(Source: Britain 1985)

and populated by some 56 million people.

The distance from the south coast to the extreme north of mainland Britain is approximately 1,000 km (600 miles) and from east to west approximately 500 km. There are numerous bays and inlets, and no place is more than 120 km (75 miles) from tidal water. The eastern area of England is mostly low-lying, and mountainous and hilly terrain occurs in Scotland, the north of England, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

Demography

The people who now inhabit Britain are descended mainly from the people who inhabited the area nine centuries ago. Immigration from the continent of Europe has been an influence at certain times, as more recently, has been immigration from Commonwealth countries.

FIGURE I
The United Kingdom showing country and regional boundaries

Although Chapter One discusses the UK's population in more detail the total population has remained relatively stable there have been significant changes in the age and sex structure including a decline in the proportion of young people; and an increase in the proportion of elderly people. These trends have strongly influenced the pattern of education and training provision. The population distribution tends to centre on large urban conurbations with Greater London having a density of 4,283 people per sq.km, compared with a national average of about 231 per sq.km.

The Legislative Base

Britain is a constitutional monarchy and a parliamentary democracy. Its permanent Head of State is the reigning King or Queen. The monarchy is the most ancient secular institution in the United Kingdom, and its continuity has been broken only once in over a thousand years. The head of government is the Prime Minister, who is leader of the political party that currently can command a majority in the House of Commons. All political power is concentrated in the Prime Minister and the Cabinet, and the monarch must act on their advice. The British constitution is partly unwritten and wholly flexible. Its basic sources are legislative enactments of Parliament, and decisions made by courts of law. Matters for which there is no formal law are determined by important conventions of the constitution, based on precedent, but always open to development or modification.

As the supreme legislative authority, Parliament uses two basic forms of legislation:

(i) Acts of Parliament; and

(ii) Statutory Instruments.

The latter are made under specific Acts of Parliament and are intended to keep the Acts themselves free from detail. Instruments therefore describe the detailed requirements of the Acts. In addition the government also produce White Papers which are statements of intent - culminating in legislation if necessary. There have been a number of such documents in the past four years dealing with education and training and these have done much to shape the system described in later chapters.

Chapter 1

THE POPULATION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Population Structure

The estimated population of the United Kingdom for 1983 was 56.3 million comprising 27.4 million males and 28.9 million females, with the following age structure:

Table 1.1 Age Structure of the Population of the United Kingdom in 1983 (millions)

	Male	Female	Total
Under 14	5.7	5.4	11.1
15-29	6.7	6.5	13.2
30-44	5.6	5.5	11.1
45-59	4.6	4.7	9.3
60-64	1.5	1.7	3.2
65-74	2.2	2.8	5.0
75-84	1.0	1.8	2.8
85 & Over	0.1	0.5	0.6

The projected United Kingdom population for the years 1986, 1991, and 2001 is set out in table 1.2 below:

Table 1.2 Projected UK Population to 2001

	1986	1991	1996	2001
0-14	10.5	10.9	11.5	11.9
15-29	13.4	12.7	11.4	10.5
30-44	11.4	12.0	12.4	12.9
45-59	9.2	9.5	10.3	10.8
60-64	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.7
65-74	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.7
75-84	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
85+	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.1
TOTALS	56.3	56.8	57.2	57.6

Since 1971 there has been a levelling-off in the rate of growth in the

population (tables 1.1 and 1.3). Prior to this there was a steady rate of growth.

Table 1.3 Population Growth in the United Kingdom (Millions)

	1901	1931	1951	1961	1971	1981
England	30.5	37.4	41.1	43.6	46.4	46.8
Wales	2.0	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.8
Scotland	4.5	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.2	5.2
N. Ireland	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6

Table 1.2 indicates that this levelling-off will continue until the turn of the century, with moderate growth expected as a result of a projected increase in births until the mid 1990's. Although the total population has not altered to any significant degree in the decade 1971-1981, the age structure within these totals has. Children aged under 15 formed 24 per cent of the population in 1971, and 19.7 per cent in 1983. Concommitant with this, is the high proportion of those aged 65 and over. In 1983 they comprised 15 per cent of the population as opposed to 13.2 per cent in 1971. In fact this century has seen a marked increase in the number of people aged 65 and over. In 1901 they formed just 5 per cent of the population. The actual number in this age group has increased by 2 million since 1961, but is not expected to grow much more up to the end of the century due to lower birth rates in the late 1920's and 1930's.

Population Distribution

The distribution of the population in the United Kingdom is shown in table 1.4 below.

The most densely populated areas are:- South East England, which contains Greater London and the industrialised North West of England.

The largest cities are London (6,765,100), Birmingham (1,011,300),

Glasgow (761,000), Leeds (761,100), Sheffield (464,700), and Manchester (458,600).

Table 1.4. Population Distribution in the United Kingdom*

	Mid-Year Estimates					
	1961	1971	1976	1981	1982	1983
England	43.6	46.4	46.7	46.8	46.8	46.8
North	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1
Yorkshire and Humberside	4.7	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9
East Midlands	3.3	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.9
East Anglia	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9
South East	16.1	17.1	17.0	17.0	17.0	17.0
South West	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.4
West Midlands	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2
North West	6.4	6.6	6.6	6.5	6.4	6.4
Wales	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8
Scotland	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2
Northern Ireland	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6.

*Source: Social Trends 1985

Population Composition

By 1983 94 per cent of the population in Great Britain were of white ethnic origin, another 3 per cent were of West Indian, Guyanese, Indian or Pakistan origin. The latter group are expected to number 2.5-3 million by 1991. 20 per cent of these people are aged between 16-24 years, comprising 5 per cent of the total population of this age group throughout Great Britain.

The majority of migrants are comparatively young - in 1983 more than 90 per cent of immigrants and 88 per cent of emigrants were under 45 years; of these, 5½ per cent were under 25.

The United Kingdom had 202,000 new residents in 1983, compared with 196,000 in 1973. In 1983 however there was a decrease in departing residents, falling 30 per cent over the previous year to 185,000 (259,000 in 1982). The net outflow of 57,000 migrants in 1982 contrasted with the net gain of over 17,000 in 1983.

Labour Force

The civilian labour force in the United Kingdom (which comprises people aged 16 or over with jobs, other than those in HM Forces, together with those in the same age group who were seeking work in a reference week) was numbered approximately 27.1 million in mid 1984. The 1970's saw an average rate of growth of 0.5 per cent per year in the labour force. Statistics indicate that this is primarily due to an increases in women entering the labour market - between 1971 and 1981 the female labour force increased by 1.25 million, for the corresponding period the male labour force increased by 175,000. From 1977 to 1981 the male labour force stabilised at 15.5 million, but from 1981-83 it fell by 300,000.

The size of the labour force is determined by the numbers in the population in each age group and by economic activity rates. The population of working age has been rising since 1975, with increases between 1983-84 exceeding ½ million. A continual rise is expected until 1989, when the working age population should stabilize.

Projections

Demographic pressures will continue to work in the direction of increasing the labour force for the next few years. Between 1984 and 1989 the population of working age is projected to rise by about 400,000. The civilian labour force is projected to grow by about 750,000 between 1984 and 1989.

For women, on the other hand, it is expected the labour force will rise by 450,000 between 1984 and 1989 as female activity rates are projected to continue to rise.

Unemployment

In 1979 unemployment stood at some 1.3 million. The seasonally adjusted total of unemployed at the end of 1985 was 3.165m or 13.1 per cent of the working population.

Unemployment during the latter part of 1985 levelled out, indicating that the number of people out of work probably passed its peak earlier in the year.

The seasonally adjusted total, which excludes school-leavers and is the best guide to underlying trends, hit a record 3.2m in May 1985. Since then, it has fallen by an average 2000 a month, against a rise of 13,000 in the preceeding six months.

Part of this improvement is attributable to the extension of special job and training schemes announced in the March 1985 budget. It is estimated that increased numbers of such schemes - particularly the Community Programme (see page 57) - have reduced the official unemployment count by 5000 a month since May 1985.

Discounting the special measures, it still appears that a more fundamental upturn in the labour seems to have taken place in response to the economic recovery. The improvement has been particularly marked among males.

Male unemployment fell by a monthly average of 3000 in the six months to November 1985, compared with an average rise of 7000 between December 1984 and May 1985.

The average figure for unemployment, does however, mask wide variations between males and females and among different regions. At the end of 1985 the proportion of males out of work was 15.7 per cent against the 9.6 per cent of women seeking jobs. The overall unemployment rate in the South East of England is below 10 per cent but in Northern Ireland its 21.3 per cent. These figures are based on people actually registered as unemployed. and therefore excludes people on job and training schemes, (estimated at 495,000) and married women.

Indications for the future are that there will be an improvement but in the long term it is predicted there will be no major reversal of the current position. Independent forecasters expect a gentle decline in the number of people out of work, but virtually all expect the total to remain above 3 million.

Several factors can be isolated that should help reduce unemployed. They are, amongst other things:

* The projected fall in the pace of growth of labour force, which has been expanding rapidly in recent years.
* employment is expected to receive a boost from the restructuring of National Insurance contributions announced in the 1985 budget
* places on the Community Programme are to be increased from 160,000 to 230,000 by the summer of 1986.

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

In 1964 the number of births reached a peak of just under 1 million. Correspondingly the number of people aged 16 and 17 reached its peak of 1.9 million in 1981. For 1984 the figure is 1.8 million and it is projected to fall to 1.2 million in 1993 (a third lower than the 1981 peak).

The numbers of young people in the population have important implications for full-time education, the labour force and Government administered employment and training programmes targeted at young people.

Trends in the numbers of young people in the population therefore has an effect on the numbers of school-leavers making themselves available for employment. Numbers of leavers available for employment are given in Table 1.5. (Attached)

TABLE 1.5

NUMBERS OF SCHOOL LEAVERS AVAILABLE FOR EMPLOYMENT: (ANALYSED BY AGE) THOUSAND

Gt. Britain — Academic Year of Leaving School

Age at beginning of academic Year.	Estimates			Projections							
	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	1984-85	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-9
Boys											
15	280	270	270	270	260	250	250	230	220	200	190
16	40	40	50	40	40	40	40	40	40	30	30
17 and over	30	30	40	40	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
All ages	350	350	360	340	330	320	320	300	280	270	250
Girls											
15	210	210	210	210	210	200	200	180	170	160	150
16	40	50	50	50	40	40	40	40	40	40	30
17 and over	30	40	40	40	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
All ages	290	290	300	300	280	270	270	250	240	220	210
Boys and Girls											
15	490	480	490	480	470	440	450	410	390	360	340
16	80	90	100	90	90	80	80	80	70	70	70
17 and over	60	70	80	70	70	60	60	60	60	60	60
All ages	640	640	660	640	620	590	590	550	520	490	470

Source: Employment Gazette August 1985.

This shows that increases between 1980-81 and 1982-3 in leavers available for employment was among those who had stayed on at school beyond the minimum school leaving age. After 1982-3 all age and sex groups show a similar decline to the end of the projection period.

In August 1984 there were 90 thousand unemployed school leavers, about 22 thousand fewer than in August 1983, and 12 thousand fewer than in August 1982. Up to 1980 the number of unemployed school leavers peaked in July of each year (over a quarter of a million in July 1980) when young people normally leave school. In August 1984 non-claimant of unemployment benefit school-leavers registering at Careers Offices numbered 160 thousand, compared with 212 thousand in 1983 and 194 thousand in August 1982. Much of the improvement in non-claimant unemployed school leavers in 1984 was due to the quicker take-up of places on the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) than in 1983. The general improvement in school leavers unemployment in 1984 was partly due to the twelve month YTS courses which in September 1983 replaced the six month courses run by the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP). The Youth Opportunities Programme and the Youth Training Scheme assisted 381 thousand young people (mainly school leavers) in Great Britain thoughout 1983-84, with work experience and practical training designed to help them to get jobs.

In July 1985 105,000 school leavers aged under 16 were registered as claimant unemployed. This total is 12000 more than in July 1984, reflecting extra school leavers signing on in April and May. This is a result of a decision by Social Security Commissioners on the eligibility for supplementary benefit of certain Easter school leavers who have been returning to school only to sit examinations during the summer. While the total of claimant school leavers is up, the number of non-claimant school leavers is 32,000 fewer than the corresponding period in 1984.

Table 1.6 below gives details on the employment of young people. About three quarters of employed under 18 were in manual occupations - that is, employees not in administrative, professional, technical and clerical occupations - are concentrated in the metal and electrical trades. Just under half the males under 16 years of age and in employment were receiving formal vocational training, but for females, the proportion was below a quarter. Apprenticeship still dominates the form of training for males, accounting for two-thirds of all in training. For females, sixty five per cent were in non-manual occupations, mostly in clerical and allied occupations.

Table 1.6

PATTERNS OF EMPLOYMENT OF 16.17 YEAR OLDS, APRIL 1984

	Males	Females
Manual Occupations	76.4 per cent	34.9 per cent
Non Manual Occupations	23.6 per cent	65.1 per cent
Main Occupational Groups (% of all Occupations)	Processing, making repairing etc(metal & electrical) - 24% Clerical & related - 10 per cent Selling - 9 per cent.	Clerical & Related-49% Selling-13% Making and repairing - 10% (excl.metal & electrical)
In Apprenticeship	34 per cent	7 per cent
In other vocational training	12 per cent	17 per cent
Not in training	54 per cent	76 per cent

Source: New Earnings Survey

Chapter 2

THE ECONOMY OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction:

The demand for a well trained and skilled workforce is the basis for all vocational education and training activity. This chapter therefore describes the key characteristics of the British economy which will, in the long term, shape and influence the type of training provided.

Britain's economic base is similar to other industrial nations - it is an open, mixed economy, predominately made up of private enterprises. The structure of the economy, however, has undergone considerable changes in the post war period with the marked rise in living standards being largely responsible for this shift.

The private sector accounts for approximately 70 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP) and is very much in evidence in all three major sectors - agriculture, manufacturing and service industries. In recent years there has also been an increasing emphasis on the privatisation of the nationalised (public sector) industries which account for some 10 per cent of GDP and 6 per cent of the total employed labour force. Overall the growth rate of the economy has been slower than in other industrial economies reaching 3 per cent in 1983.

Agriculture

Although some three-quarters of the land area of the United Kingdom is given over to agricultural use,it still only accounts for 2.7 per cent of the total employed labour force - a lower

proportion than in many other major industrial countries. The UK however still produces about two-thirds of its own food requirements. The labour force continues to decline whilst the level of mechanisation has increased considerably thus the sector is characterised by a high level of capital investment per person employed.

Manufacturing

Although the traditional manufacturing sector plays a vital role in the economy contributing some 24 per cent of the gross national product; employing 26 per cent of the total employed labour force and accounting for 66 per cent of visible exports, considerable changes in both its structure and relative importance have taken place. The sector is dominated by privately owned enterprises especially small and medium sized enterprises. Firms of less than 500 employees account for just over 50 per cent of the total labour force employed in manufacturing and for 97 per cent of the total establishments. A breakdown of the structure of manufacturing enterprise is given in table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Manufacturing: Size Distribution of Establishments

Number of employees	Number of establishments	% of total establishments	%of total employment
Under 20	80,930	74.7	10.0
20 to 499	25,465	23.5	40.1
500 to 1,499	1,445	1.3	20.3
1,500 or more	436	0.4	29.6

Source: Report on the Census of Production 1981.

Growth within the manufacturing sector has been variable as shown in table 2.2.,

Table 2.2 Manufacturing-Gross Value Added and Index of Production

	Gross Value added (£ million) 1982	Index of Production (1980 = 100) 1982	1983
Metal manufacturing	1,879	103.8	104.2
Other minerals and mineral products	3,161	94.9	94.3
Chemicals and man-made fibres	5,358	99.5	105.8
Mechanical engineering	7,895	89.0	85.7
Other metal goods	3,411	94.3	97.0
Electrical and instrument engineering	7,917	97.4	106.7
Motor vehicles and parts	3,160	79.8	84.0
Other transport equipment	3,426	100.5	97.1
Food, drink and tobacco	8,424	98.9	100.4
Textiles	1,758	87.7	89.5
Clothing, footwear and leather	1,960	89.0	91.2
Paper, printing and publishing	5,550	91.4	91.7
All other manufacturing	4,383	88.1	91.9
Total	58,282	93.7	95.9

Source: United Kingdom National Accounts 1984 Edition.

with the chemical; food and drink and electrical and instrument engineering being some of the major growth areas.

Service Industries

The most dramatic change in the UK's economy has been the considerable growth of the services industries particularly in the finance and business sector. In 1983 this sector was responsible for generating some 61 per cent of the gross national product and accounting for 63 per cent of total employment.

This growth, which resulted in a 1.3 million increase in employment in the period 1973-1983 compared with a fall in the other sectors of the economy was largely due to the increase in personal disposable income.

Energy Industries

The offshore oil and gas industries have also been a major growth point accounting for 5 per cent of the gross national product in 1983. Following the discovery of the North Sea reserves Britain has now become self-sufficient in energy in net terms and the financial benefits of these resources have had a major effect on the economy.

The Role of IT Industries

The rise of information technology both in terms of production and development, and its application is generally recognised to be a profound influence on the economy. The success of the United Kingdom in both areas has been patchy and incomplete although it is generally accepted that there is considerable potential still to be tapped. The annual growth rate of these industries has also been slower than in other industrial countries.

Regional Variations

The UK economy suffered its worse recession since the 1930's between the period 1979-82 but the full effects of this, and indeed the subsequent recovery, have not been uniform and some regions have fared better than others. In general terms the South East has been least affected with both a higher output per head and a faster growth in gross domestic product (GDP) per head than the national average - other areas of economic growth include East Anglia and the South West.

Areas of traditional manufacturing, especially heavy industry such as that found in the West Midlands have been hardest hit by the recession.

In an effort to redress economic inbalances, the Government provides financial incentives to encourage industrial development in special 'assisted areas'. The primary purpose of this selective grant aid is to stimulate job-creation generally in the manufacturing and service sectors. These schemes and the other grant aid available is co-ordinated by the Department of Trade and Industry and the Welsh and Scottish Offices whilst in Northern Ireland this responsibility falls to the Industrial Development Board.

Economic Prospects

There is agreement amongst the main economic forecasts that there are likely to be at least modest improvements in the British economy. The growth in the service sector, employing essentially non-manual skills; the decline for demand in manual labour and the regional economic disparities associated with the rise of new industries particularly in the information technology sector would appear to be the trends for remainder of the 1980s.

Chapter 3

INITIAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction

This chapter describes the various forms of education and training provision made for children and young people up to the age of 21. In broad terms the system catering for this group's needs involves an increasing number of choices, particularly from 16 years of age by which time there are a number of options available. Following a brief description of the school system, the major part of this chapter summarises the complex system of provision made for 16-21 years. Figure 3.1 shows the general structure of publicly-maintained education in the United Kingdom.

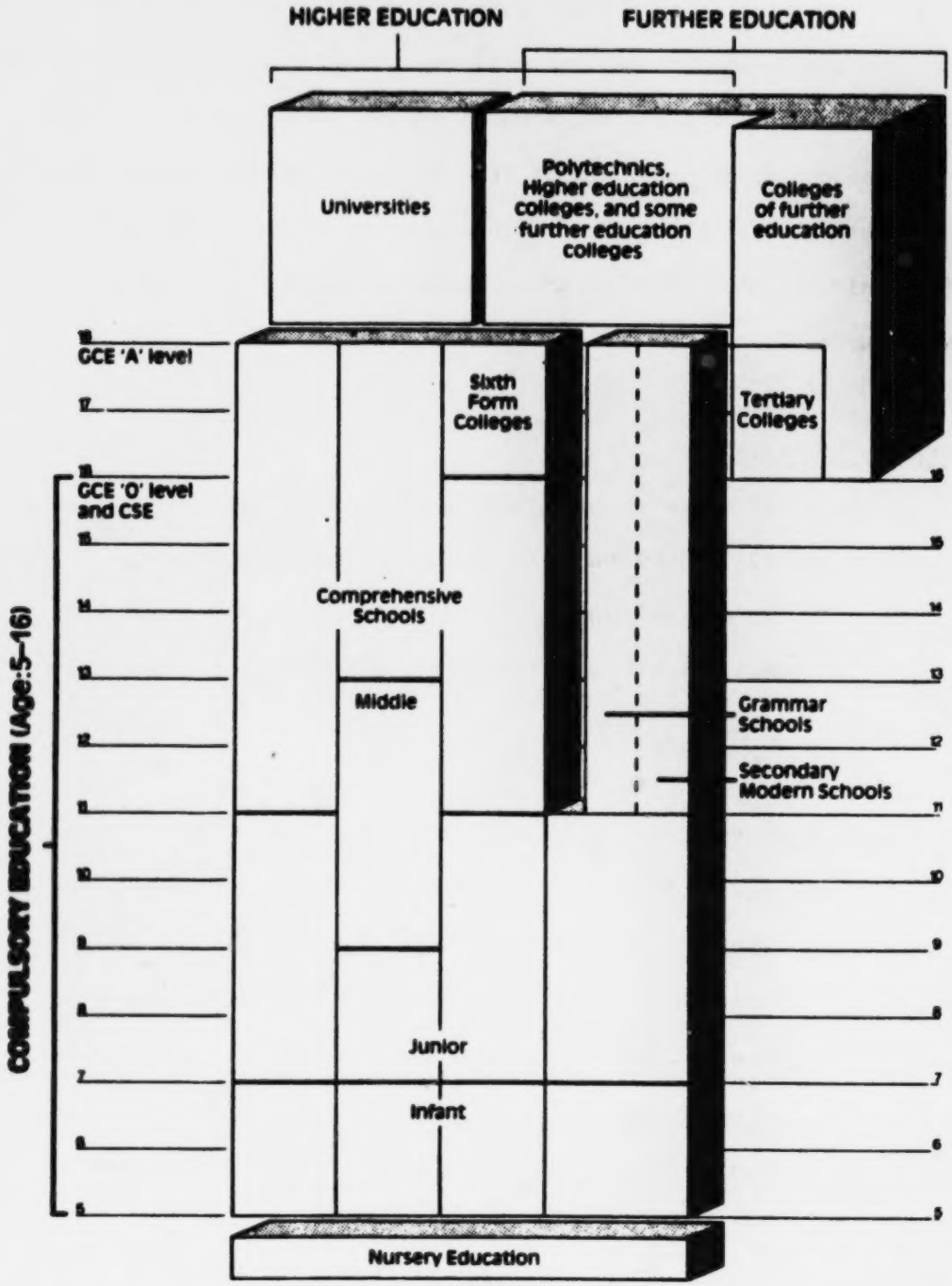
Schools and Education

The basic pattern of education for all four countries of the United Kingdom was established in the immediate post-war period and although major changes have taken place since this time, the basic structure of a three tiered system of primary, secondary and further education remains unchanged. In 1982-83 the public sector education service in the United Kingdom supported 37,000 schools of which 27,000 were nursery or primary and 5,400 secondary. The system provided education to 9.25 million pupils, taught by nearly half a million teachers.

Compulsory schooling starts at 5 and ends at 16 with additional provisions at both ends of the spectrum. Thus in 1983 some 608,000 children under five had access to some form of pre-school education - some 44.7 per cent of all 3-4 years old. Whilst in the same year 2 million young people under 21 were engaged in post compulsory education - 527,000 of whom remained at school. The remainder attending some form of further education.

Figure 3.1

Diagram of publicly-maintained education



Parents have a legal obligation to secure the full-time education of their children between the ages of 5-16 and for the large majority (94 per cent) this will be achieved through the state funded education system, which costs £15 billion (5.3 per cent of the Gross National Product) in 1982-83 to maintain. The remaining 6 per cent are educated in private or independent schools known as public schools. Apart from Northern Ireland, parents have a statutory right to express a preference for a particular school for their child's education and a local appeals system exists for this purpose.

Primary Education

The first stage of compulsory education is between the ages of 5-11 (in Scotland 12) and is known as primary education. Primary schools provide a wide ranging curriculum which is developed from within the school itself, and represents a basis for the next educational level.

Secondary Education

At the age of 11 children transfer to secondary schools to continue with an education which aims to suit their particular abilities. Although there is still a degree of selection based on ability, about 91 per cent of the state funded secondary schools population in England and Wales attend comprehensive schools which seek to cater for a wide range of abilities. In Scotland almost all education is comprehensive in nature whilst in Northern Ireland secondary education is still organised on a more selective basis according to ability.

Although the curriculum is determined by the school there are a number of external influences affecting it, most notably

the public examination system. The government also seeks to influence the standards of education through the publication of discussion papers and other reports and through the work of Her Majesty's Inspectorate (described on page 73). Again secondary schools offer a wide-ranging curricula including academic and practically based subjects.

Technical and Vocational Education Initiative

A major cu riculum development being supported by the Manpower Services Commission is a pilot project now involving virtually all the local education authorities in Great Britain known as the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI). This initiative launched in 1983 is concerned with stimulating the provision of work-related skills for the 14-18 year age group within the initial full-time education system. Nearly 21,000 students are now taking part in a wide variety of TVEI projects at a cost of £26.2 million. Although each TVEI project supported by the MSC must meet certain general criteria including:

(i) catering for a wide range of ability;

(ii) offering a broad education with a strong technical element related to employment needs; and

(iii) lasting for four years.

Local Education Authorities and the schools and colleges involved have developed widely differing curriculum and delivery models to satisfy these basic criteria. It is hoped that this experiment will prompt other innovations on a wider scale to secure a better technical education curriculum (see page 88).

Secondary School Examinations

At the end of the five years of secondary school most pupils will generally take some sort of public examination. There are two main examinations available in England and Wales for 16 year olds and over:

- the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at Ordinary ('O') level; and
- the Certificate of Secondary Examination (CSE)

Both are subject-based examinations which are organised and monitored by external, independent bodies - completely separate from the schools and colleges. The CSE is controlled by 14 regional examining boards made up of employers and educational representatives and the GCE by 8 other different boards, frequently associated with a university. Although the GCE examination is essentially a school-based qualification it is also possible to take these examinations either as private canditates or as students at further education colleges.

The GCE was first introduced in 1951 and the CSE twelve years later in 1961 and it is generally recognised that the highest grade in the latter (CSE Grade I) is broadly equivalent to a pass grade GCE (Grade C). These grades are usually regarded as the minimum criteria for entry into further education and training. In 1983 some 27 per cent of those leaving school obtained at least one GCE 'O' level pass or equivalent whilst 12 per cent left school with no qualification at all, the remaining 61 per cent being awarded some sort of grade in public examinations.

This dual examination system is now under review and a new single system of examinations - the General Certificate of Secondary Education (the GCSE) will be introduced in the Autumn of 1986, with the first examinations being held in 1988. The GCSE is intended to:

- create a fairer system for candidates both in the award of grades and access to examinations; and
- to use resources more efficiently.

The GCSE will have seven grades, A to G, with the top three grades having standards at least as high as O-level A to C. In all subjects there will be different papers or different questions within common papers, aimed at pupils of different levels of ability. The network of examining boards will also be rationalised into five groups - four in England and one in Wales. The responsibility for the standards A to C will be that of the GCE Boards whilst the CSE Boards will be responsible for grades D to G.

All examinations will meet national criteria developed by the boards and the system will be monitored by a governmental advisory body known as the Secondary Examination Council.

POST COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Staying At School

Staying at school beyond the statutory leaving age of 16 is one of the first options available to young people and some 31.8 per cent did so in 1982 and there has been a steady increase in this area. Traditionally, most young people doing so would be studying for the GCE Advanced('A') level but changes are also being made at this educational level. The 'A' level is a single subject examination and is normally taken after a further two years' study and is designed for those wishing to enter some form of higher education. Some 18 per cent of all school leavers in

1983 obtained at lease one 'A' level or its equivalent.

By 1989 the 'A' level will be complemented by an intermediate examination known as the Advanced Supplementary (AS) level. As examinations will offer an alternative to some post 'O' level students as well as giving 'A' level students an opportunity to develop their knowledge over a broader range of subjects, usually over a twelve month period.

From September 1985 schools will also be offering a new educational qualification designed to help 16 year olds who are not ready to specialise in academic or vocational studies. The qualification, known as the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) will provide a one-year course in schools or colleges covering the basic skills required in a variety of jobs.

In many respects the CPVE can be regarded as the educational counterpart the Youth Training Scheme (described later in this chapter). The relationship between the two schemes however has yet to be fully worked out.

The framework for the 600 or so school-based programmes approved to date consists of three elements:-

- Core Competencies - designed around ten areas such as social skills, numeracy, and information technology;
- Vocational Studies covering five broad vocational areas; and
- Additional Studies such as community and leisure activities.

The CPVE award is made by a joint Board for Pre-Vocational Education consisting of two national educational bodies the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) and the Business and Technician Education Council (B/TEC). Over 1000 institutions are offering CPVE courses during the academic year 1985/86.

Scottish Provision

The examination system in Scotland is organised differently. As children only start their secondary education at the age of 12 they only complete four years before sitting the Ordinary grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE 'O' Grade) which is broadly equivalent to the GCE 'O' level in England and Wales. Pupils remaining at school for the fifth and sixth years then go on to sit for SCE Higher grade exams but these usually cover a widerspan of subjects than the English 'A' level equivalent.

Major changes in the Scottish examination system, which is the responsibility of the Scottish Examination Board (SEB) are now taking place, following the publication of two major educational reports, the so-called Munn and Dunning reports, which considered the curriculum and assessment in the last two years of secondary school.

In August 1984 a new system of examinations covering four subjects - English, Mathematics, Science and Social and Vocational Studies known as the Standard Grade were introduced. The system involves three levels of certification for all 16 year olds - Foundation, General and Credit, with the last category designed for those pupils likely to proceed to Highers in the fifth and sixth years.

This represents the start of the phasing out of the SCE 'O' level and the new scheme will be fully operational by 1988/89 and forms part of a larger programme of educational reform described later in this chapter.

Leaving School - The Alternatives

The decision to remain within the education system has changed dramatically in the past decade. In 1974. 72 per cent of all 16-18 year olds had left school for employment but by 1984 this had fallen to 42 per cent. As a consequence involvement in some form of full-time further education has increased steadily over this 10 years period but most noticably since 1979. A summary of the changing status of 16-18 year olds in 1974 - 1984 is shown in table 3.1.

The remainder of this chapter considers what other options are available both through the labour market and formal education.

Table 3.2

EDUCATIONAL AND ECONOMIC ACTIVITY OF 16-18 YEAR OLDS AS AT JANUARY 1974, 1979 AND 1984

Great Britain

	Boys			Girls			Persons		
	1974	1979	1984	1974	1979	1984	1974	1979	1984
All 16-18 year olds (millions)	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.3	1.3	2.3	2.6	2.7
Percentage									
In full-time education									
School	16	16	17	15	16	18	15	16	17
Further education	10	11	11	10	13	16	10	12	14
All	25	27	29	26	30	34	25	28	31
In employment (outside YTS)									
With Part-time day Study	25	20	12	6	6	5	16	13	9
Other	47	42	29	66	54	38	56	48	34
All	71	62	42	72	60	43	72	61	42
YTS/YOP	-	3	11	-	3	9	-	3	10
Unemployed	4	8	19	2	7	15	3	7	17

SOURCE: DES Statistical Bulletin 5/85

Involvement in Further Education

It is estimated that some 472,000 16-18 year olds were involved in some form of full-time further education in 1984 - 14 per cent of the total population; whilst another 235,000 young people (9 per cent) were attending part-time day courses. The nature and level of these educational provisions varies considerably as do the institutions involved.

The UK's further education system has traditionally catered for the vocational education needs of young people. The term itself covers all post-school education below university degree level, however a distinction is made between advanced (AFE) and non-advanced further education (NAFE). As access to AFE courses usually demands GCE 'A' level standards for entry, most 16 and 17 year olds involved in further education will be on NAFE courses.

A wide variety of institutions offer further education courses on a full-time or part-time basis including colleges of further education and technical colleges. Typically colleges will offer a wide range of courses including those leading to the GCE and to vocational qualifications at technician, craft and operative levels. The further education curriculum is therefore influenced by a number of external and independent examining and validating bodies offering nationally recognised qualifications.

The City and Guilds of London Institution (CGLI) is one of the oldest examining bodies and holds a central position in the British further education system. CGLI provides examinations in approximately 300 subjects and nearly half a million students sit CGLI examinations in any one year. Although maintaining close links with the Department of Education and Science it remains financially independent from it, raising most of its income from examination fees. A large part of its examinations work deals with craft level occupations.

The responsibility for technicians qualifications in England and Wales falls to the Business and Technician Education Council (B/TEC) which was set up in 1983 following a merger of the Business Education Council (BEC) and the Technician Education Council (TEC). There are four main categories of award - two are offered as non-advanced further education and two at the advanced level. Courses, assessment and examinations are college-based as BTEC's role is to approve course contents and examinations and is therefore a 'validating' body, and it validates a large number of vocational oriented courses mounted by colleges. In 1983/84 some 100,652 students were awarded BTEC qualifications.

In addition to these bodies there are also a number of other examining bodies including the Royal Society of Arts and the London Chamber of Commerce who provide qualifications in secretarial and commercial subjects.

Post-School Education in Scotland

Allied to the examination reforms found in Scotland (see page 29), there has been the complete restructuring of all non-advanced vocational education provision in Scotland for the 16+ age group. This major achievement comes only two years after the publication of the '16-18 in Scotland - An Action Plan' a report by the Scottish Education Department which set out the need for the relationalisation of vocational awards from the various validating bodies.

The new scheme, entitled the National Certificate has involved the introduction of 4-hour learning modules in the broad areas of Business and Administration, Science, Technology and Inter-Disciplinary Studies.

Some 740 modules were available in the 1984/85 session and by the end of 1986 a further 800-900 should be available. About 50 per cent of all secondary schools and all further education colleges are involved in offering this type of provision which uses a system of criterion referencing assessment.

The responsibility for the assessment of the National Certificate falls to the newly formed Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC) following a merger of the Scottish Business Education Council (SCOTBEC) and the Scottish Technician Education Council (SCOTEC) and again performs a validating role as with its English counterpart BTEC. Although the modularisation on non-advanced further education has had greatest impact on the 16-18 year old age group the National Certificate is intended for adult continuing needs as well.

Advanced Further Education Provision

In the academic year 1983/84 over 400,000 students enrolled on AFE courses in institutions supported out of public funds. The type of provision available runs from the Higher National Diplomas and Certificates offered by the Business and Technician Education Council (B/TEC), degrees, some professional qualifications such as the Institute of Bankers and the accountancy bodies and other types of diploma. Typically post-school entrants to this type of course will require GCE 'A' level passes, and are thus aged 18 years or over.

Various institutions are involved in providing AFE and such provision can be found in most of the local educational authorities in England and Wales. The 30 polytechnics account for 53 per cent of all AFE enrolments but only 38 per cent of part-time students as illustrated in Table 3.2.

Polytechnics were established between 1965 and 1975 by merging already established institutions to help with the major expansion of higher education which was required. The polytechnics and their counterparts in Scotland the 14 Central Institutions aim to provide a comprehensive and varied range of courses at sub-degree to doctoral level. They are primarily teaching institutions with very close links with industry and commerce.

The polytechnics together with the other colleges of higher education offering AFE level courses, have seen an increase in their share of higher education compared with the universities, as reflected in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Course enrolments in major establishments of further education by mode of attendance, level of course and nature of institution (thousands) England and Wales - November 1983.

INSTITUTION	POLYTECHNICS			OTHER MAINTAINED			ALL MAINTAINED		
MODE OF ATTENDANCE	AFE	NAFE	TOTAL	AFE	NAFE	TOTAL	AFE	NAFE	TOTAL
FULL-TIME	101	3	104	76	347	423	177	350	527
SANDWICH	50	-	50	11	15	26	61	15	76
TOTAL-PART-TIME	67	14	81	109	1175	1284	176	1189	1365
of which Evening only	18	8	26	26	578	604	44	586	630
TOTAL	218	17	235	196	1537	1733	414	1554	1968

Table 3.4 Higher Education: all full-time and sandwich students

Great Britain Thousands

	1970	1980	1982	1983
Type of institution				
Universities	228.1	298.7	295.4	291.7
Public sector	217.2	222.3	258.0	273.8
Type of course				
Postgraduate	49.1	61.0	57.1	59.6
First degree	220.9	378.6	407.8	412.1
Other advanced	175.2	81.4	88.5	93.8
Total	445.3	521.0	553.4	565.5

(Source: DES Statistical Bulletin 9/8 July 1985).

Polytechnics have also seen a substantial growth in the award of first and higher degrees - a total percentage increase between 1976 to 1983 of 169 per cent compared with the Universities with 27 per cent increase in the same period. Control of academic standards of polytechnic degree courses is the responsibility of the Council for National Academic Awards which was established in 1964. Again this is a validating body and in recent years there has been a greater sharing of responsibility for standards between the Council and the institutions involved.

University Education

The final component of the higher education system catering for 18-21 year olds are the 45 UK universities (the contribution of the Open University is discussed in the next chapter). Admission to the universities is governed by the academic qualifications and 2 GCE 'A' levels are the very minimum criteria. In practice all university students will hold 3 GCE 'A' levels at particular grades. Universities are autonomous bodies, awarding their own degrees which typically last for 3-4 years, though medical and veteninary courses usually last for 5-6 years.

Degree titles vary but in England, first degrees are usually known as Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) and higher degrees called Masters (MA; MSc) as well as Doctor of Philosophy (Phd). As with the other educational institutions the range of provision is considerable but the most popular subjects in 1983/84 in terms of student numbers were:

Medicine, Dentistry and Health	26,884
Engineering and Technology	30,204
Biology and Physical Science	61,129
Business and Social Studies	52,992

In total there were 295,000 students on full-time courses in Great Britain universities in 1983/84.

Work-Based Training Provision

Young people entering employment may or may not find themselves on a formal training scheme, and the provisions vary considerably from industrial sector to sector.

Apprenticeships

Traditionally an apprenticeship has been the main route for preparing skilled craftsmen in engineering and other sectors of manufacturing. Apprenticeships involve a formal training period ranging from 3 to 7 years, with four years being the most common practice. Statistics on the extent of apprenticeship are sparse since no central agency collects this data. Some indicative trends however can be drawn from the statistics available from the Engineering, Construction and Road Transport ITBs which all demonstrate a marked decline in this kind of training opportunity. Between the mid 70's and 1982/83 engineering apprenticeships fell by 58 per cent whilst in road transport the decline was more serious with a fall of 86 per cent. The full scale of this decline is demonstrated by comparing the recruitment of Engineering Industry Training Board apprentices which in 1978/79 was nearly 25,000 but in 1983/84 was 8,100. A trend which is mirrored in other sectors.

Generally, apprenticeship schemes are governed by collective agreements between the employers' associations and trade unions and pay and conditions are determined accordingly. Apart from craft apprenticeships there are also trainee and student apprenticeships and indeed many graduate schemes for professional bodies such as the law or accountancy could also be regarded in the same way.

Efforts to move away from time-serving restrictions and to improve access to vocational training opportunities which emphasis skill standards and attainment forms one of the objectives of the New Training Initiative (see page 68). The modernisation of occupational training is, however, a matter for employers and unions and as such progress has been uneven. In this respect the road transport and printing industries have made major advances in introducing modular, skill standards and competence-based training schemes.

Youth Training Scheme

Perhaps one of the most significant developments in the UK's history of vocational training has been the introduction of the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) by the Manpower Services Commission. The idea for this programme was first set out in the MSC's New Training Initiative in 1981 and it had become an operational reality some sixteen months later, in April 1983. YTS significantly differed from earlier schemes such as the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP); Work Experience on Employers' Premises (WEEP) and Unified Vocational Preparation (UVP) in that these special measures were designed to help reduce youth unemployment

The Youth Training Scheme, therefore, for the first time in the UK offers young people an opportunity to be involved in a broad-based training scheme. Its key features are that:

- it is a one year long, high quality programme of training and planned work experience;
- it includes at least 13 weeks' off-the-job training;
- it is primarily an employer based scheme; and
- provides a broad based year of foundation training.

At present there are two types of schemes referred to as Mode A and Mode B to describe employer-led and community-led projects (see page 40). The future development of this initiative is also described on page 86.

Scale of Programme

The Scheme is open to all 16 year old school leavers and some 17 year old school or college leavers as well as young people with special needs (disabled and educationally sub-normal) leaving school up to the age of 21. The scale of the programme in the second year of operation is reflected in the table below which shows the total number of entrants by various types of scheme and region.

TABLE 3.5: ENTRANTS BY MODE AND BY REGION, 1984/85

Region	Mode A	Mode B1	Mode B2	Total
Scotland	32,400	10,200	1,100	43,000
Northern	16,200	8,200	2,500	26,900
North West	41,000	16,700	2,800	60,500
Yorkshire and Humberside	29,200	9,300	3,400	41,800
Midlands	61,600	17,900	1,800	81,300
Wales	15,700	6,800	900	23,500
South West	22,700	5,300	400	28,400
South East	48,100	9,900	1,700	59,700
London	17,700	4,700	1,400	23,700
Great Britain	284,500	88,900	16,000	389,000

Note:

Column and row totals may not correspond to the sum of their components because of independent rounding.

Management

The overall direction of the Scheme is overseen by the MSC's Youth Training Board consisting of employers, trade unions, local authority, education and careers service representatives. A structure which is also replicated at the local level through a network of Area Manpower Boards who are responsible for approving the training schemes proposed by the variety of organisations now offering YTS.

Under Mode A schemes the primary link is the Managing Agent who is responsible for the complete 12 months programme.

The Agent received in 1984/85 from the MSC:

(i) a block grant of £2,050 per trainee consisting of a training allowance (£27.30 per week) paid to trainees and the remainder being a contribution to the costs of training; and

(ii) a management fee of £110 per trainee per year to cover the costs of administration.

Managing Agents may well run training programmes within their own organisations or represent other organisations, known as sponsors, thus co-ordinating the total scheme. In total the MSC budget to support YTS approached £1 billion in its first year and £827 million in 1984/85.

Modes of YTS

As mentioned earlier the present system of YTS involves three types of training programme known as Mode A; Mode B1 and Mode B2 and these refer to the nature of the scheme's organiser. Mode A schemes are the largest group providing 75 per cent of all training places available in 1984/85 and are employer-based schemes. Although the size of these schemes varies considerably from those organised by large private sector companies and some industrial training boards, the size of a single scheme averages 80 training places.

The differences in Mode B schemes are related to funding and structure but not in the aims or content of the schemes. Under Mode B schemes the MSC acts as its own Managing Agent organising training places with non-profit-making organisations such as training workshops; colleges or ITeCs (described below) Sponsors involved in Mode B1 are usually public sector bodies whilst most Mode B2 schemes are operated by further education colleges.

Nature of Training

To ensure that all schemes achieve the aim of providing a broad based foundation training the MSC's criteria for programme design must include the following elements:

- o induction
- o assessment
- o off-the-job training/education
- o guidance and support
- o occupationally based training
- o core areas, common to wide variety of work, including number and its application, communications, problem solving, practical skills, introduction to computer literacy and information technology
- o record and review of progress and certification
- o planned work experience.

Programmes must also contain the opportunity for trainees to learn the following:

- o basic skills including the core skills of number; communication problem solving; manual dexterity and computer literacy
- o world of work (working to deadlines, role of trade unions etc)
- o world outside employment (including trainees' interaction with community)
- o job specific and broadly related skills
- o personal effectiveness (for example, planning, problem solving and interpersonal skills)
- o skill transfer (including learning skills)

Given the aims and scale of the Scheme substantial progress was made very quickly during the first year of operation but inevitably some changes were made in the second year following a major review. In the second and current years, more attention has been paid to quality and standards and greater emphasis placed on consolidating the achievements made to-date.

Information Technology Centres (ITeCs)

Some 6000 Mode B training places in 1984 for the Youth Training Schemes were provided by a special network of 163 Information Technology Centres (ITeCs) set up in 1981 with grant aid from the Department of Trade and Industry. These Centres, managed on behalf of the MSC by various voluntary and other bodies, provide specific information technology training programmes for young people. The role of ITeCs, however, is expanded and other types of IT training courses are now being provided for other groups of trainees.

Accredited Training Centres

From the outset YTS has been accompanied by a nation-wide staff development and training programme not only for the MSC officials involved but for those directly involved in the training of young people. Provision for this latter group is focussed on the 55 Accredited Training Centres who provide training for all those involved in the delivery of YTS with a special emphasis on work placement supervisors and other key YTS staff. During 1984/85 some 135,000 people attended training courses provided through the ATC network.

Northern Ireland's Youth Training Provision

YTS is only available in England, Scotland and Wales and different arrangements apply to Northern Ireland which has had a Youth Training Programme (YTP) since September 1982. The overall responsibility of this programme is shared between the Departments of Economic Development

and Education and is not so heavily dependent upon employers as in its mainland counterpart, YTS. The key elements of YTP are similar to YTS in that it seeks to offer a guaranteed year of education and training for all unemployed 16 year old school leavers and some 17 year olds.

The role of employers however takes less significance and the funding arrangements also differ, reflecting the province's particular and unique problems such as the exceptionally high youth unemployment found there.

Careers Service

In order to help young people make sensible and realistic career and training decisions there is a nation-wide service created under the Employment and Training Act 1973 which empowered every local education authority to fund a Careers Service. This service replaced the Youth Employment Service. Careers Services are staffed by Careers Officers, who offer advice and guidance on occupational choice, further and higher education facilities and local employment opportunities, to people in school and colleges.

In most authorities there is scope for specialisation and it is possible for careers services to have specialist officers for one or several of the following groups of functions:

- disabled
- 'A' level
- immigrant
- industrial liaison
- information cultural careers

The Departments of Employment and Education and Science both operate Careers Services Branches within their Department. These units are responsible for providing guidance and operational guidelines for the Careers Service.

The Manpower Services Commission also supports a careers information service, COIC (Careers and Occupational Information Centre) which produces, publishes and distributes a wide range of literature and audio-visual teaching aids for professional advisers and the general public on all aspects of careers and training.

Job Centres

The Employment Services Division of the MSC also maintains a national network of about 1000 jobcentres providing a range of services to both job-seekers and employers. These services, including advice and guidance, can be used by anyone looking for a job and increasingly the Centres are being used as the first port of call for the range of services also offered by the MSC's Training Division.

Chapter 4

ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Introduction

The provision of adult education and training in the UK's decentralised system of delivery inevitably cuts across, and involves, a large number of organisations and interest groups, operating at the local, regional and national levels. There is no single system of delivery but rather a number of complementary and sometimes overlapping initiatives. As with youth training provisions, the hallmark of adult education and training is its diversity and essentially pluralistic nature. A broad, although increasingly artificial, distinction however can be made between the provision made by the formal education system and that made by industry and commerce and the relevant government agencies. It should also be noted that in recent years through a number of governmental initiatives more effort has been placed in bringing about closer collaboration between education and industry at this level. This chapter seeks to describe the developments and programmes available to improve adult education and training provisions.

The Nature of Adult Education

Adult education is a broad ranging term to describe a wide range of facilities, organisations and types of provision catering for the diverse needs of the adult population of the United Kingdom. Thus the term can equally be applied to the extensive basic literacy and numeracy provisions available as it can to a weekend study course in American literature. Typically, though somewhat unjustly, the term has become synomous with leisure, recreational and other non-vocational studies. A view which is difficult to maintain since the distinction

between vocational and non-vocational may well differ according to the needs, circumstances of the individual student concerned.

The adult education system itself is very diverse involving a great many organisations both directly and indirectly in a variety of roles. Throughout there is a strong tradition of voluntary action typified by the existence of such bodies as the Workers Education Association. The major resource provider however is the Local Education Authority which is required by 1944 Education Act (and its equivalents in Scotland and Northern Ireland) 'to provide adequate facilities for further education over compulsory school age and for leisure time occupations'. This requirement has been interpreted differently by the authorities and various delivery mechanisms have developed as a result.

Adult Education Statistics

There are no reliable statistics available for participation rates in adult education activities. Studies carried out by the National Institute for Adult Continuing Education (NIACE) - a national centre of advice and information in this area - would suggest that some 15 per cent of the adult population are involved in some form of systematic education during any one year.

Universities and Adult Education

The Universities have a long tradition in the adult education field through various forms of provision, however less than 20 per cent of students attending full-time first degree courses are aged 21 or over. Furthermore involvement in postgraduate studies is also dominated by young adults with again only 20 per cent of all students on full-time second degree courses being aged 25 or over. Part-time degree provision tends to be relatively under-developed with the

exception of the Open University described later, and that offered by Birkbeck College (part of the University of London) which almost exclusively caters for mature students on a part-time basis.

Most Universities have extra-mural departments which offer short courses of various kinds, usually during the evenings and weekends. The extent to which this type of provision caters for work-related needs varies considerably between the universities, as does the extent to which individual University departments or faculties provide their own short work-related courses.

The Changing Role of Colleges

Further and higher education colleges in the United Kingdom have typically and predominately catered for the educational needs of the 16-21 year age group, however they also represent a significant and large component in the adult education sector. Increasingly the facilities and capabilities of colleges are now being utilized to cater for the post-experience and updating needs of those in employment. The primary impetus and focus of this change is derived from a DES initiative launched in May 1982 known as the Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating (PICKUP) programme.

The aim of PICKUP is to encourage educational institutions to provide post-experience or updating courses for those people already in employment by:

- encouraging colleges, polytechnics and Universities to seek out and identify training needs;
- helping industry and commerce to find out what courses are available; and
- seeking to remove administrative and financial barriers in the provision of such courses.

In 1985-86 approximately £6.2 millions have been set aside to achieve this task largely through the use of selective grant aid to support relevant developments and initiatives.

Colleges Employer Links Project

A similar and related investigation also funded by the DES and local education authorities has been set up known as the College-Employer Links Project (CELP). CELP is concerned with seeking to help colleges identify and meet the education and training needs of local firms in the non-advanced further education sector. As such the project has a broader remit including both youth and adult trainees and is being run on an experimental basis in eight parts of England. The main emphasis however on bringing education and industry into closer colloboration mirrors PICKUP's own objectives.

Local Collaborative Projects

The final element in encouraging colleges to be more responsive to the education and training needs of adults can be found in a jointly funded MSC/DES programme of financial support known as Local Collaborative Projects (LCPs). Again the purpose of LCPs is to encourage greater collaboration at the local level between employers and education and training providers. Two levels of project are being funded known as small and large scale investigations - each attracting a different level of funding, Small scale LCPs have a budget ceiling of £20,000 otherwise they are regarded as large-scale projects. The total budget for this initiative in 1985/86 is £2.9m.

LCPs started in 1984 and the first year of operation saw the setting up of 17 large scale projects and more than 100 small ones throughout Great Britain. The aim of each is to help local training providers and users to work together in a collaborative partnership to investigate adult training needs and to develop ways of tackling them. The funding available however does not support the costs of training itself.

The PICKUP initiative and these other developments have, in the past two years or so, revealed the importance and potential of local tertiary educational provisions in catering for employed adult training needs in a clearer and more direct way. They can be viewed as an effort to promote the role of colleges as being able to respond effectively to the needs of local industry thereby making better use of resources.

Distance Education Provisions

Increasingly the use of open and distance learning techniques are being employed in this area, building on the pioneering efforts of such institutions as the National Extension College (NEC) and the Open University. The NEC was founded in 1963 and offers a large number of both vocational and general education correspondence courses at a variety of educational levels. The Open University, founded in 1971, on the other hand, provides an opportunity for adults to undertake degree and post-graduate studies. In 1984 some 100,000 students were following courses, about two thirds at first degree level. The University also offers a supporting programme of non-degree courses known as the Associate Student programme which cater specifically for those who wish to gain knowledge or who require updating in a range of subjects. This Associate programme has a significant vocational element offering courses in such areas as micor-electronics and management subjects.

Educational broadcasting through television and radio is also an important feature of this kind of adult education provision. Virtually all households in the UK, have at least one television set and the use of such media for educational purposes, ranging from basic skills to degree level broadcasts by the OU, therefore, contributes substantially to this area.

A more recent innovation in applying open and distance learning to the problems of industrial training has been in the setting up of the MSC's Open Tech Programme which forms part of the New Training Initiative proposals (see page 68).

Unlike the Open University however which is a large institution, the Open Tech's role is as a catalyst, simply providing pump-priming finance to enable other organisations to develop open learning materials.

Some 80 Open Tech Projects have now been established under this three-year experimental programme in a wide variety of subjects, industries and levels of education and training ranging from avionics to quality assurance. In total some 50,000 adult trainees are expected to benefit from this initiative by 1986/7.

Vocational Training Provisions

Whilst the decision to make use of adult education provisions primarily rests with the individual, the responsibility for training rests solely with the employer. In general terms there are no statutory obligations to provide training although some legislation, such as that concerned with health and safety at work and in certain occupations such as in mining, does have significant training implications.

The pattern and extent of the vocational training of adults in the United Kingdom, therefore, varies considerably and may be provided on or off-the-job; in purpose built training centres owned by the firm; in colleges or through commercial organisations or the employer may choose not to train at all. The system is therefore determined by market forces and the company's policy on training. The role of the government and its main agency in this area the Manpower Services Commission is simply to encourage and foster a positive attitude by means of various pump-priming initiatives. Thus the PICKUP and Open Tech initiatives described above can be viewed as examples of the efforts being made to improve access to a variety of training opportunities which exist at the local level. Overall the record for adult training and retraining in the UK has been relatively poor - a problem now being seriously addressed.

Adult Training Campaign

In an effort to promote and encourage a greater level of investment in training for adults the Manpower Services Commission launched a national awareness campaign to raise awareness of the importance of adult training in November 1984. This initiative closely followed the publication of a report which compared the status of training in Britain with three other major industrial countries - Japan, Germany and America. The results of the study known as 'Competence and Competition' together with findings from other recent studies revealed that the UK's training record, particularly for adults,was relatively poor compared with other industrial nations. The campaign therefore is seeking to change employers' attitudes to adult training by demonstrating that:-

(i) training is a form of investment that is essential for growth; and

(ii) training should not be viewed as ending with new recruits but is a continuing requirement throughout working life to keep pace with technological change.

Although the campaign is being co-ordinated by the MSC it is essentially a means of encouraging others to take a positive interest and action in adult training provision.

MSC Adult Training Provisions

The launch of the Adult Training Strategy has also resulted in a restructuring and expansion of the MSC's own adult training schemes and it is estimated that some 220,000 people will be helped by such provision in 1985/86. This involves an increase of 90,000 training places compared with 1984/85 at a cost of £262m, with further expansion planned for 1986/87 to 250,000 places thus doubling the 1983/4 provision.

There are two strands to this initiative covering both employed and unemployed people:

(a) The Job Training Programme refers to the MSC's programme of activities directed at known employment needs. This is intended to help companies expand or develop. The programme consists of several areas of training provision including

- the Job Training Scheme - with a budget of £159m in 1985/86 is designed to provide training or retraining for known employment needs such as computing skills and will be directed at unemployed adults.
- Access to Information Technology is a scheme to increase awareness of information technology by mounting short courses outside normal working hours for both employed and unemployed people.

These schemes together with various forms of grant aid including consultancy grants to help companies purchase advice on their training needs and grants to help employers equip unemployed people with skills which have proved difficult to find in the labour market form one element to the MSC's own efforts in this area.

(b) Wider Opportunities for Adults Programme

The second major dimension to the MSC's own efforts is concerned with the unemployed and helping to improve their work-related skills and it will consist of two main strands, costing £28.7m in 1985/86 in total.

- Work Preparation - is aimed at unemployed people and builds on earlier courses run under the MSC programme known as the Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPs). The training provided under WP courses will help improve unemployed people's prospects of getting a job or further training by assessing their skills and abilities.
- Training Linked to the Community Programme covering work preparation and basic occupational training for those involved in the Community Programme.

It is estimated that 42,000 people will be helped under this initiative during 1985/86.

Training for Small Firms

Small firms form a major part of the British economy and the MSC under its Job Training Programme provides basic management skills training under its Training for Enterprise scheme. This initiative first launched in 1977 has helped to establish some 6,500 firms and created an estimated 17,000 jobs at a cost of less than £1000 per job. This Programme in 1985/86 will have a budget of £14.4m and is estimated to help some 16,000 people this year by offering training to

(i) people who plan to go into business through various types of short course; and

(ii) people already running small businesses.

In addition the MSC also run an Enterprise Allowance Scheme which helps unemployed people set up small businesses without losing their unemployment benefit.

Women

Although most vocational training opportunities are open to women, traditional employment patterns continue to be the most dominant, despite various schemes and initiatives to encourage equal opportunities. A situation reflected by various statistics:

- in 1983/84 27,412 men were full-time undergraduates on engineering and technology courses compared with 2,792 women.
- 0.6 per cent of women entered teacher training course in 1982/83 whilst only 0.1 per cent of men did so.

Generally, therefore, women continue to be under-represented in the vocational education and training schemes except in the traditional areas.

The past five years or so however has seen a considerable growth in positive action for the training of women and women managers in particular with many organisations in the service sector leading the way.

The Manpower Services Commission has also introduced a training programme specifically geared to helping women who intend to return to work after a break. These Wider Opportunities for Women (WOW) courses aim to help women make informed occupational/training plans and to equip them with information and self-confidence to carry out these plans. The courses are generally run in further education establishments on either a full-time or part-time basis in collaboration with the MSC's area office. In addition the Commission provides a number of pump-priming grants to support development projects concerned with demonstrating the importance of training and retraining of women.

Other organisations have also pioneered schemes to encourage greater access to vocational training opportunities for women. The Equal Opportunities Commission and Engineering Council for example in 1984 mounted a year-long campaign known as Women in Science and Engineering (WISE) and various events were organised under this banner. Similarly, the Engineering Industry Training Board has continued to promote women's training in engineering through various schemes such as its Insight Programme providing a one-week residential familiarisation course for young girls interested in pursuing an engineering degree.

Disabled Workers

Considerable efforts have been made during 1985 to improve the employment prospects of disabled people with some £1.5 million being made available through the Manpower Services Commission in the next three years to help organisations experiment with new ways of placing disabled people in employment or for supporting them once they have obtained jobs. This continues the efforts of various government bodies and other voluntary agencies to secure improved employment opportunities for this group.

Disability as such does not generally disqualify people from entering the majority of occupations or vocational training schemes and some 75,000 disabled people are found jobs each year through the general employment service operated by the Manpower Services Commission. In addition, there are other specialised forms of help including a network of 27 Employment Rehabilitation Centres designed to help people back to work after serious illnesses or injuries. These centre's provide short training courses and access to them is free and some form of training allowance is usually paid.

The Sheltered Placement Scheme, formerly known as the Sheltered Industrial Group Scheme, is also organised by the Manpower Services Commission and is designed to provide integrated job opportunities for severely disabled people in the labour market. It is estimated that by April 1986 over 1600 disabled workers will be involved in the scheme. Its operation involves a sponsoring organisation which must be a local authority, a voluntary body or Remploy - a national agency, who is responsible for employing the disabled person and a host company who provides the work-place and any training required. The host pays the sponsor for the work done and the remainder of the disabled person's salary is then made up from MSC grant funds.

Unemployed Adults

One of the major mechanisms used to help the long-term unemployed is the MSC's Community Programme. This initiative, set up in 1982, provides temporary employment lasting twelve months for the long-term unemployed on projects of benefit to the community. The programme originally provided 130,000 places but in 1985 it was increased and by 1986 some 230,000 places will be available. The recent changes in the MSC's own adult provisions described above also now include an element of training for those involved in this programme.

Skillcentre Provisions

Great Britain also has a long established tradition of providing a network of government sponsored vocational training organisations. In the early 1980s this type of provision was reviewed and a new Skillcentre Training Agency was set up by the MSC with the objective of it becoming financially self supporting. The majority of courses provided by the 58 Skillcentres are in engineering, construction, electrical/electronic and automotive trades and some 12000 trainees

either on MSC supported scheme or sponsored by local employers attended such courses in 1984. In an effort to provide a more flexible service to meet the needs of local industry the centres are being rationalised once more and the Mobile Training Service which operates from the Skillcentres is being expanded, to 175 full-time instructors. This service involves instructors visiting employers' premises and providing training on site.

Conclusion

Adult training efforts have been somewhat overshadowed by the advances made of the youth training front in recent years, and progress towards the New Training Initiative's third objective - of opening up adult training opportunities has been patchy. On the one hand the various schemes described earlier such as Open Tech and PICKUP have made a significant contribution to this area but the main thrust is certainly likely to occur in the next few years when the MSC's awareness campaign and the Adult Training Strategy takes effect.

Chapter 5

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

Education

Education has developed separately in England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland and, although there are a great many common trends, it is convenient to deal with the historical background to the systems by describing its constituent parts.

England and Wales

For centuries England and Wales have provided school and University education. Education for all began towards the end of the nineteenth century. In medieval times, grammar schools were ecclesiastical establishments where candidates for the priesthood learned Latin. Later, independent and voluntary schools, usually administered by religious bodies, provided a broader curriculum. The first government grants for education were made in 1833.

The Education Act of 1870 was a major piece of legislation which introduced publicly-maintained elementary education throughout England and Wales. Local School Boards were set up and it was their task to provide elementary education in their own areas.

Consequently there was considerable local autonomy. Finance was raised from local and national taxes and school fees. The schools were secular but the local boards could provide religious instruction if they wished. The principle of a strong local influence in the provision of education still continues, and the present system owes much of its diversity to the decentralised, local nature of its organisation.

School attendance from 5 years up to the age of 10 was made compulsory in 1880 and in 1889 local authorities were empowered to spend part of the rates (a local property tax) on technical instruction.

The school-leaving age was raised to 12 in 1899 when the Board of Education was set up to coordinate the education system nationally. The Education Act of 1902 abolished the local School Boards. Responsibility for providing education at this stage was given to the locally-elected councils of counties which became the local education authorities and worked with the Board for Education. The same Act empowered the local education authorities to provide secondary education. The school-leaving age was raised to 14 in 1918, to 15 in 1947 and to 16 in 1972.

A major development in education was the 1944 Education Act, under which the Board of Education was replaced by the Ministry of Education, headed by a Government Minister who had certain statutory powers. A three-stage system of primary, secondary and further education was established. Primary education was reorganised into infant and junior, and secondary education into modern, grammar and technical schools. By a written examination at the age of 11 it was decided whether or not a child would enter a grammar school (with a more academic curriculum) or the secondary modern or technical school (with a more practical curriculum). Secondary education in publicly-maintained schools was provided free of charge after the 1944 Act. Free provision of elementary education in

publicly-maintained schools began after the Education Act of 1870.

The 1964 Education Act enabled new schools known as 'Middle Schools' to be established to provide education for both junior and senior pupils in the same school between the ages of 9-14 years (marking the introduction of non-selective "comprehensive" schools in which children of secondary age in a particular neighbourhood are educated at one school without reference to ability or aptitude).

The 1976 Education Act directed local education authorities to reorganise secondary education by setting up comprehensive schools to replace grammar and secondary modern schools. The Act was not popular in all areas and some authorities had not reorganised their schools by the time the requirement was removed in the Education Act of 1979.

As a result, there is considerable diversity in secondary education in different areas of the country. The majority of schools are comprehensive, but there are also grammar schools, secondary modern schools, voluntary-aided schools and independent schools, once again reflecting the decentralised nature of educational provision.

The Education Act 1980 introduced legislation for the first time outlining procedures for LEAs and governors regarding the admission of pupils to individual schools. The Act states parents must be supplied with information to enable them to express their choice of school for their children.

Provision has been made under the terms of the Act for LEA's and governors to set up appeal committees to consider objections by parents when children are not placed in the school of their choice.

Scotland

Scotland became part of the United Kingdom in 1707 but is has retained much of its individuality including its own legal, ecclesiastical and education systems.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1872 transferred a large measure of the organisation and administration of education from the Church to newly-constituted bodies, known as School Boards. Nearly 1,000 School Boards were set up with powers to levy rates (local property tax) to provide compulsory schooling for all children aged 5-13 and non-compulsory evening schools for young people over 13. The Scottish Education Department was set up to supervise the system.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1883 raised the school-leaving age to 14 for children who had not obtained from one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools a certificate of ability to read and write and a knowledge of elementary arithmetic. From 1901 the school-leaving age of 14 applied to all children.

The Act of 1918 made mandatory the provision of free secondary education for all children desiring it, and provided for the transfer of voluntary schools to the management of the education authority. Under the Local Government (Scotland) Act 1929 the administration of education was entrusted to Education Authorities,

who were the Town Councils of the four cities (Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh and Glasgow) and the County Councils in other areas.

The Education (Scotland) Act 1945 applied to Scotland, the Government's policies for the development of education in England and Wales as well as making changes which affected Scotland only. The school-leaving age was to be raised to 15 (this occurred from 1 April 1947) and subsequently 16 (in 1972/73 at the same time as in England and Wales).

The Education (Scotland) Act 1946 consolidated all previous enactments from 1872-1945. As in England and Wales, the majority of children of secondary school age in Scotland today attend co-educational comprehensive schools, provided free of charge by local authorities.

The main Scottish Legislation is the Education (Scotland) Act 1980, which was amended by The Education (Scotland) Act 1981. This Act consolidated a number of Acts passed between 1962 and 1971. It sets out requirements in relation to pupils, public schools of all categories, placings in schools, grant-aided schools and independent schools.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland became a self-governing unit of the United Kingdom in 1921. The Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1923 brought education in Northern Ireland into a single system. Each county and county borough was constituted the responsible education authority for its area, and was required to exercise most of its functions through one or

more education committees.

The Education Act of 1938 raised the school-leaving age to 15, subject to exemption for children of 14 on grounds of beneficial employment. As in the rest of the United Kingdom, the second world war postponed implementation of this Act.

The Education Act (Northern Ireland) 1947 laid down the organisation of the statutory system of education in three stages (primary, secondary and further). Statutory provision was made for secondary intermediate schools (comparable to English secondary modern schools) to make possible secondary education for all.

The Education and Libraries (Northern Ireland) Order 1972 made new provision for education to accompany the reorganisation of local government which took place in October 1973. In place of 8 local education authorities and various local library authorities, 5 area education and library boards were established which were made responsible for the administration of the education, library and youth service.

Vocational Training

Formal vocational training in the United Kingdom can be traced back to the Middle Ages and earlier. In 1563 the Statute of Artificers formalised the system of trade guild apprenticeships, and this Statute remained in being until 1814 by which time contemporary practice had changed considerably.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century, Mechanics' Institutes were established, first in Scotland and then throughout the United Kingdom. Originally, they were intended to provide tuition for working people in the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but as the availability of free elementary education improved they broadened their range of subjects. By the 1850s, about 700 institutes were in operation, many of them affiliated to the Royal Society of Arts,(founded in 1974 as the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce in Great Britain). In 1878 the City and Guilds of London Institute for the Advancement of Technical Education (CGLI) was founded by five City of London Livery Companies (trades guilds). The CGLI became the main technical examining body and the RSA concentrated on commercial, clerical and language examinations. The RSA and CGLI are still among the major examining bodies, although B/TEC (and its Scottish counterpart), SCOTVEC are now responsible for technician level examinations.

Under the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 local authorities were empowered to raise local finance to establish technical schools.

The first Government Training Centres were set up in 1925 to provide training and re-settlement programmes for ex-servicemen, the disabled and the unemployed. In the 1970s, the centres (now called Skillcentres) increased in number to around 100 to training for those who wished to change jobs or to upgrade their existing skills.

Following a review of Skillcentre provisions in the late 1970s the number was reduced and there are now about 60 Skillcentres offering 18,000 training places, and 12 centres with nearly 3000 places in Northern Ireland.

The 1944 Education Act gave local authorities statutory responsibility for providing further education. During the 1960s in particular, the number of training places, both full-time and part-time, for school-leavers increased considerably.

The 1960s saw the first major Government intervention in training with the Industrial Training Act of 1964. The Act provided for the establishment of statutory industry training boards (ITBS) for manufacturing industries and some of the service sector which together employed over 15 million employees.

The aims of the Act were:-

(a) to ensure an adequate supply of trained men and women at all levels of industry;

(b) to improve the quality and efficiency of training; and

(c) to spread the cost of training among all employers.

The Act also established the Central Training Council. This body worked in tandem with Boards and published information on training policy.

The ITBs were financed by a statutory levy from employers, which paid for the boards' administrative costs and funded grants to employers who provided training to approved standards.

In the years 1971-2, the Department of Employment undertook a review of the 1964 Training Act and as a result of this work published "Training for the Future, A Plan for Discussion".

This paper stimulated considerable discussion and the Government conceded there were a number of loopholes in the 1964 Act that required attention.

The Employment and Training Act 1973 was a compromise between the 1964 Act and the suggestions put forward in the Department of Employment's document.

The Manpower Services Commission (MSC) was set up under the 1973 Employment and Training Act. The Act attempted to simplify the levy system and influence the ITB's activities by making the MSC responsible for ITB administrative costs.

The MSC also took over responsibility for the Training Opportunity Scheme (TOPs) and the Training within Industry Scheme, formerly administered by the Department of Employment.

The need for cost-effectiveness of statutory training boards in each sector of industry in Great Britain was questioned, with the result that the Employment and Training Act 1981 allowed for the abolition of ITBs.

Since the introduction of the 1981 Act, 16 Boards have been wound up, and responsibility for training in these sectors has passed to non-statutory industry bodies. The MSC's document in 1981 to the Secretary of State for Employment entitled "A Framework for The Future" made recommendations on various sectors of industry that would be affected by the winding-up of some Boards.

The final element in the historical development and training policy came in May of 1981, when the MSC issued a consultative document "A New Training Initiative" and they invited

submissions from interested parties. Over 1000 written submissions were received and the outcome of this was the publication in December 1981 of "A New Training Initiative: An Agenda for Action". This set a national policy framework on vocational education and training for the 1980's.

The New Training Initiative had 3 objectives:-

1) To modernise occupational training (see page 38)

2) To provide the opportunity for all young people under the age of 18 to continue in full-time education or planned work experience combining work related training and education. (These ideas were later taken up in the Youth Training Scheme described on page 38)

3) To provide easier access for adults to update or acquire skills during their working lives and led to the setting up of the Open Tech programme (page 49) and later the Adult Training Strategy initiatives (page 52)

In the last two decades, Government intervention in funding and organising training for the unemployed (particularly young people) has had an effect on employment and training patterns. For example, programmes designed to smooth the transition from school to work have been developed by the MSC, schools, colleges and employers.

Chapter 6

Roles and Responsibilities in the UK's Training System

Introduction:

This chapter describes the legislative and organisational basis of the United Kingdom's education and training system and provides an overview of the policy-making machinery in operation. Again the decentralised nature of the system is very much in evidence and even where legislation is in operation, as in the case of educational provision much of the authority is devolved downwards to the local education authorities.

The Organisational Basis of Education

The present educational system of the United Kingdom is largely the direct result of the 1944 Education act and the comparable legislation for Scotland and Northern Ireland enacted in 1945 and 1947 respectively. Although there are specific differences and variations in each country. This legislation broadly created a three tier arrangement for educational administration consisting of:-

(i) central Government Departments with overall responsibility to the Government;

(ii) local (regional)authorities to administer the service in their own geographical areas; and

(iii) schools, colleges and other institutions with their own responsibility for the day to day management and operation.

Subsequent legislation has sought to develop and extend this basic structure.

Central Government's Role

The role of central Government is primarily one of policy formation and the broad allocation of finance. Each of the relevant Government departments for the four countries lays down minimum national standards of education but they do not establish curricula for schools or get involved in either, the direct management of the institutions or in setting examinations. Diagram 6.1 shows how this responsibility is shared, at the ministeral level.

Country	Minster	Agency
England	The Secretary of for Education and Science	Department of Education and Science
Wales	The Secretary of State for Wales	The Welsh Office
Scotland	The Secretary of for Scotland	Scottish Eoucation Department
Northern Ireland	The Secretary of State for Northern	Department of Education for Northern Ireland.

In practice, these responsibilities are discharged in different ways and through different systems reflecting the variations in the historical and social development of the four countries.

A number of specialist and advisory bodies also assist the central Government Departments in maintaining national standards and co-ordinating educational provision. In respect of standards Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) are charged with monitoring the effeciency of educational establishments and providing specialist

advice to both central and local government as well as to schools and colleges. All schools, whether state-funded or private are open to inspection as are colleges maintained from public funds.

Other advisory groups, in England and Wales financed by the Education Department include the Secondary Examinations Council whose role is to provide advice to the Government on the school examination system; the Further Education Unit set up to under-take research and development work on the further education curriculum and the National Advisory Body providing advice to the Secretary of State on the provision and funding for local authority higher education. Similar advisory bodies and mechanisms for curriculum development and standards can also be found in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The Role of Local Education Authorities

Local education authorities (LEAs) under the 1944 Education Act are charged with making adequate and effecient provision to meet local educational needs. In addition to providing satisfactory compulsory schooling for 5 to 16 year olds, the authority is also responsible for pre-statutory provision (nursery education for the under fives) and for further education for those over 16 years of age. The 122 local education authorities are controlled by education committees of local elected members together with non-elected people with specialised knowledge or experience, and apart from the Inner London Education Authority, form part of a larger system of committees operating at the local level to adminster various services provided by Local Authorities.

The responsibility of educational provision at the local level is considerable ranging from the employment and payment of teachers and the provision and maintenance of school and college buildings' to the supply of equipment and materials and curriculum development. The LEA also has a number of discretionary powers such as financial assistance with provision of transport between home and school.

Although there are slight differences in the overall pattern of education for 5-16 years old the role of the local education authority is broadly the same in each of the four countries. The differences in post - 16 educational provision have been described elsewhere.

The Schools

There are now some 10.1 million children who attend Britain's 37,000 schools. Education between the ages 5-16 is free and financed from public funds but about 6 per cent of children attend schools ('public' schools) which are totally independent of public financial support. There are however differences in the type of school in each of the four countries.

In England and Wales two types of school are supported, namely country schools maintained by LEAs wholly out of public funds and voluntary schools, generally linked to religious denominations, which although also supported out of public funds, some capital costs may have been contributed by the school governors concerned.

Most schools in Scotland known as public schools are supported by the local authority from public funds and in Northern Ireland there are three main categories of schools, controlled schools under the control of the local authority (known as the area education and library board); voluntary schools again supported by public funds but usually under the control of a Roman Catholic management and voluntary government schools funded directly by the Department of Education. All publicly funded schools have governing bodies made up of governors appointed by the LEA together with at least two parent and teacher representatives.

The Further Education System

The further and higher education system consists of a large number of institutions catering for diverse educational needs of young people and adults. In general most are supported from public funds however the allocation of finance may differ with respect to the educational level of the institution concerned. The diversity of this system is described more fully in Chapter 3.

Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI)

The HMI is an independent body whose role is to advise the Secretary of State for Education and Science on the quality and standards of education provided by schools and colleges (but not universities). The 400 strong team of Inspectors can visit any publicly maintained educational institution to observe, and make comment on educational practices. They also regularly conduct surveys of educational practices; organise staff development courses and provide advice on educational issues.

The University System

Although the universities form part of the further education system it differs markedly in respect of funding and control. Firstly only the Secretary of State for Education and Science (in England) is responsible for relations with the 47 universities in Great Britain. Secondly all universities are autonomous being governed by either royal charter or special Acts of Parliament. Some 90 per cent of university expenditure is financed by a direct government grant to the Universities Grant Committee (UGC) which distributes this in the form of block grants to each university.

Student Grants

Students involved in post-school education may receive grant aids from the local education authorities to cover the costs of tuition fees; and subsistence during term-times (and the Christmas and Easter vacations). Two sorts of grants are made to full-time and sandwich course students:

Mandatory Grants - where a local education authority is required by law to make a grant to students on particular types of courses including first degree courses at university or polytechnic.

Discretionary Grants - where the level of grant aid made available is determined according to the local education authority's own policy and priorities, thus practices vary from area to area.

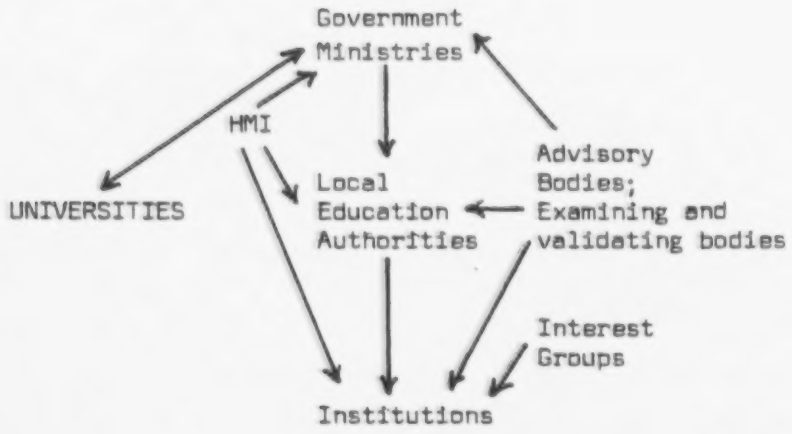
In terms of Mandatory grants, the level of award is determined by central government, however, adjustments will be made to reflect the parent's or students own means.

Other Sources of Influence

In addition to the agencies set up to meet statutory obligations there are a large number of other bodies which exert an influence or the scale, scope and nature of educational provision. These bodies include the trade unions representing the interests of teachers and lecturers; state funded advisory bodies and other pressure and interest groups such as subject teaching associations.

The Result Model

All these parties, both statutory and advisory are therefore involved in a dynamic, but predominantly decentralised education system which can be illustrated as follows:-



The Administrative Framework of Vocational Training

Whilst education policy-making machinery is governed by legislation, vocational training administration is less well structured. As described earlier, the responsibility for the provision and funding of vocational training rests solely with the employer with government agencies, and in particular the Manpower Services Commission, seeking to develop a coherent national training policy and environment for such voluntary efforts to take place. In respect of vocational training therefore the government's role is generally seen as catalytic rather than interventionist. Various organisational structures, however, can be identified at the national, regional and local levels concerned with developing vocational training initiatives.

The Role of the MSC

The major responsibility for national training policy rests in the hands of the Manpower Services Commission. This agency is technically separate from the government but is accountable to the Secretary of State for Employment. It was set up in 1974, under the Employment and Training Act, 1973, to run the public employment and training services in Great Britain. In achieving its aims of:

a) contributing to efforts to raise employment and reduce unemployment;

b) assisting manpower resources to be developed and contribute fully to economic well-being;

c) helping secure for each worker the opportunities and services he or she needs in order to lead a satisfying working life;

d) improving the quality of decisions effecting manpower

it employs nearly 21,000 throughout Great Britain and in 1984/85 its budget amounted to nearly £2 bn.

The work of the Commission is controlled by ten Commissioners appointed by the Secretary of State and it is a tripartite body consisting of a Chairman, representatives from the social partners (nominated by the Confederation of British Industry (CBI) and the Trades Union Congress (TUC)) together with educational nominees. Similar arrangements exist for the Commission in Scotland and Wales, whilst in Northern Ireland the corresponding responsibilities are undertaken by a government agency the Department of Economic Development. Policy execution rests in the hands of two operating divisions concerned with Employment and Training which operate at various levels. Figure **6.2** shows the organisational structure of the Commission.

Other Government Agencies

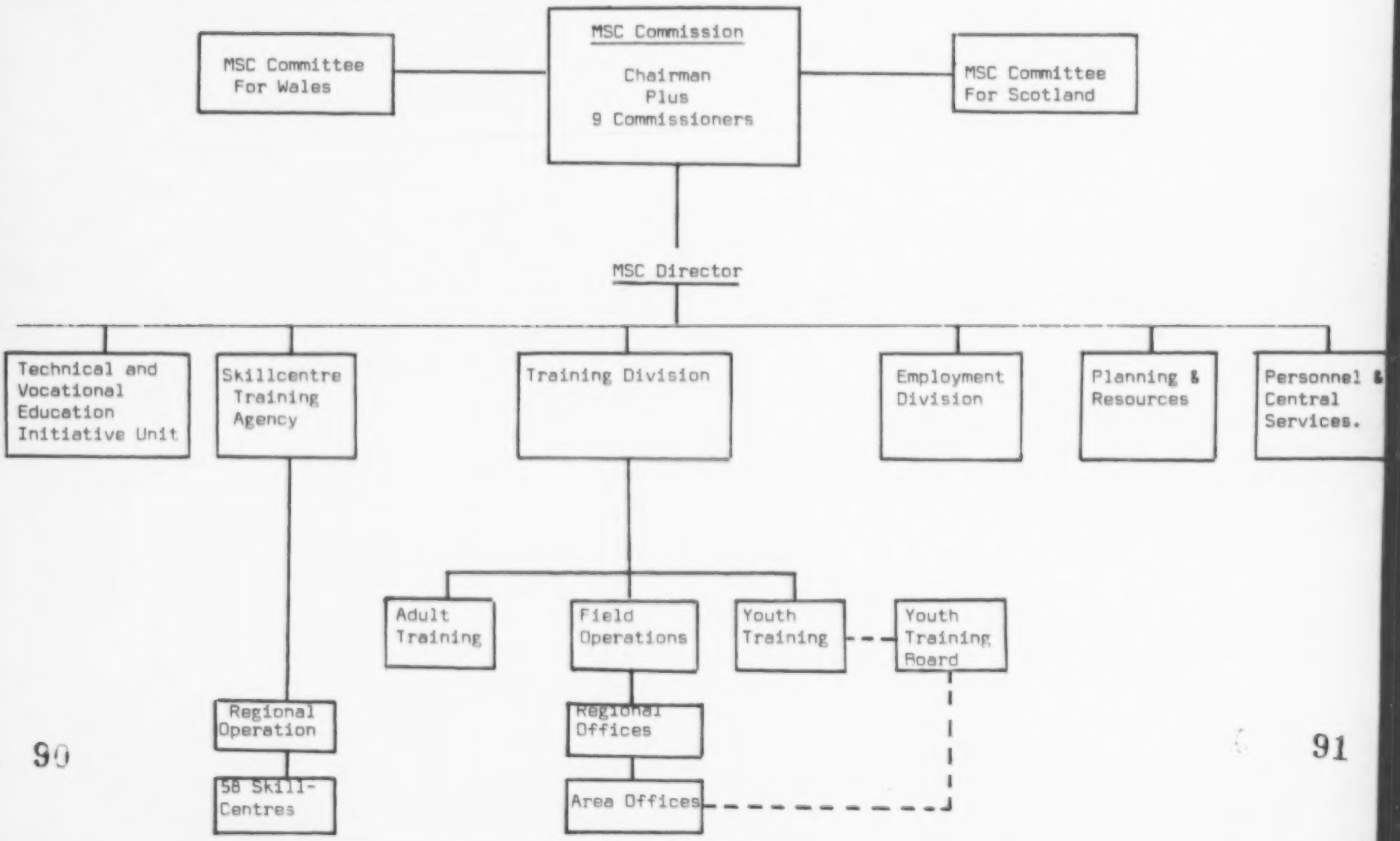
In practice there are close links between the MSC and other government departments most notably the Department of Employment which is directly responsible for manpower policies and the Department of Education and Science described earlier. In this respect the MSC and DES have in recent years increasingly worked closer together on a number of jointly funded programmes.

Other National Bodies

In addition to the governmental bodies there are a large number of other agencies involved in seeking to influence national manpower and training policy. These bodies include the professional associations and in particular the British Institute of Management (BIM); Institute of Training and

Table 6.2

THE ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE MANPOWER SERVICES COMMISSION



Development (ITD) and the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) which given their representational interests are also closely involved in vocational training policy. Whilst other bodies such as the National Economic Development Organisation (NEDO) and the British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education - a long standing educational charity concerned with all matters affecting vocational education and training provision also exert an influence in this area.

Sector Training Interests

Following the changes in the state-funded industrial training board (ITB) system in 1982 a diverse pattern of industrial training organisations, usually allied to employers associations, was created. Sectorial training policy is now once more based on voluntary initiative and even the financing of the seven remaining statutory industrial training boards (see Annex 2) are the responsibility of the industries concerned.

Apart from the Local Government Training Board and the Agricultural Training Board whose funding is slightly different there are some 160 non-statutory training organisations with whom the Manpower Services Commission also co-operates and discusses vocational training policies. These, together with liaison maintained with the nationalised industries and public utilities represents a comprehensive, though somewhat complex, system of linkages for promoting vocational training initiatives on a sectorial basis.

Regional and Local Involvement

Given the decentralised nature of the system it is not surprising to find other agencies operating at both the regional and local levels. The Manpower Services Commission itself maintains 9 regional offices and a network of 55 area offices charged with the interpretation, implementation and delivery of MSC policy. There are also 55 Area Manpower Boards, allied to the area office network, consisting of local employer, employee and educational interests set up to develop the Youth Training Scheme (see page 38) at the local level.

The Local Education Authority described earlier is the most significant body operating locally. The Department of Education and Science does not have either a regional or local pressence, however, Her Majestry's Inspectors (see page 73), do advise the Secretary of State for Education on educational provisions and standards locally. Provision of further education is monitored in England by nine Regional Advisory Councils who advise LEAs and further education establishments on the needs for educational programmes. The Councils are made up of nominated members from the regions including LEA and college officials. A similar body exists in Wales. Further education colleges also maintain links with local employers through various advisory committees to ensure that work-related provisions are adequately met.

CHAPTER 7

THE FINANCING OF TRAINING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Introduction

Training finance is in itself a classic example of the mixed economy at work with financial contributions being made by individuals, employers and public agencies operating at different levels. Understandably, therefore, trying to measure or chart the inputs and outputs of the training finance system proves somewhat difficult. The lack of data in some areas together with differing accounting practices leads to a somewhat fragmented picture and one which probably underestimates the amounts of money actually involved.

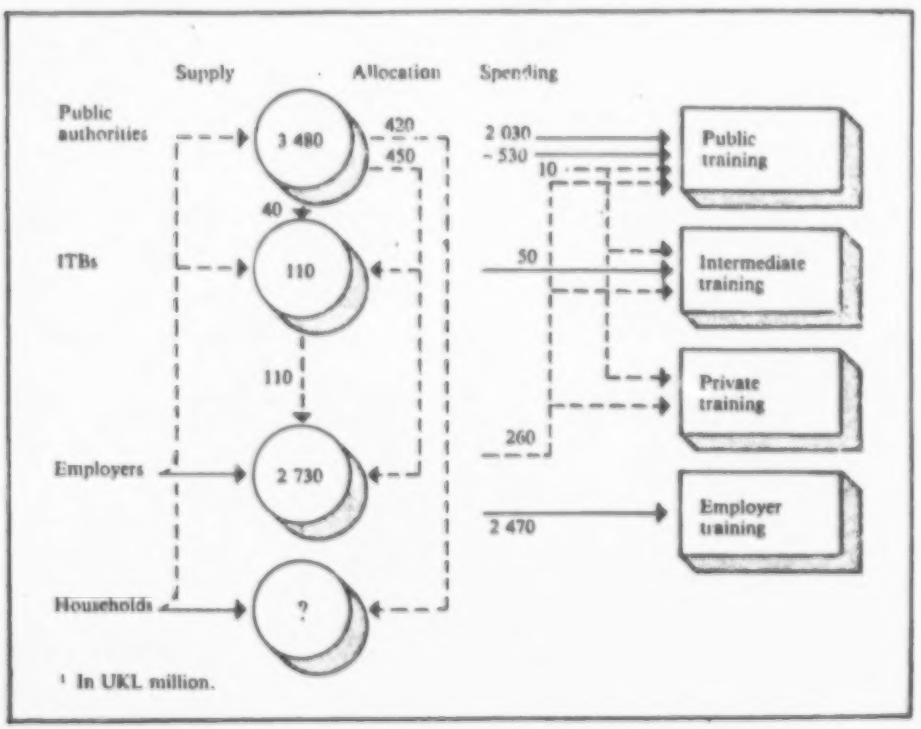


Fig.1: Funding of UK Training 1982-83 (Drake, 1984)

Figure 1 provides an overview of the system, based on estimates from the 1982-3 fiscal year showing how much was allocated and where it was spent. This chapter describes some of the main components of the training finance system as well as highlighting some of the issues involved.

The Role of Central Government

Central government obviously plays a major part in the finance system with the Manpower Services Commission and the Department of Education and Science taking leading roles. However, other ministries also contribute to the funding of training initiatives. Taxation of both households and employers is a significant sources of these funds and Drake (1984) has estimated that just over 50 per cent of identifiable training funds comes from this source.

The majority of these tax funds are allocated to the four Government Departments responsible for education provision, with net educational expenditure (by all public authorities) being estimated to represent just over 5 per cent of the Gross National Product. The level of expenditure in real terms (at 1983-84 market prices) has remained fairly constant during the past five years with £12.9 billions being spent in 1983-84.

This money is used to support all educational-based activity described in earlier chapters with the local authorities (see page 71) being responsible for some 84 per cent of the total. The allocation of funds to the 121 local authorities from central government occurs annually in the form of Rates Support Grants.

In addition to this, each local authority raises money through "rates" (a local property tax on all households) and combined these cover the costs of all locally maintained services. Educational expenditure, generally represents the major cost in these services with over 50 per cent being made up of teachers and lecturers salaries.

In terms of sector or level of education, compulsory education provision is responsible for between 50 to 55 per cent of total expenditure whilst some 32 per cent is allocated to the further and higher education system (including the Universities sector). The pattern of distribution of funds, mirrors the changing demographic base of the UK (see Chapter One) with school expenditure decreasing and further/higher education having increased over the past five years.

The Manpower Services Commission is the other major recipient of funds raised through general taxation. Although the sums involved are much smaller than those of education, the Commission's expenditure in 1983-84 was estimated to be in the region of £2.5 billion representing a 100 per cent increase on the preceeding year and three times the 1979-80 level. The rapid growth in the Commission's budget reflecting the expansion of its youth and adult training initiatives over the past two to three years. About £100 million of the Commission's expenditure in 1983-84 was paid directly to local education authorities to support MSC schemes organised by schools and colleges.

The final component of public training expenditure is the UKL 530 million for in-house training of national and local government civilian employees, including trainee salaries, and over UKL 10 million to purchase training services in the Public Sector or from private trainers in 1982/83.

Industrial Training Boards

In 1982/83 public funding of the Industrial Training Board system ceased, (see page 67), but the remaining seven boards in existence still cover about 30 per cent of the total work force of Great Britain. Apart from the actual closure of sixteen boards, the major change in this system was a financial one, with the operating costs of the boards previously supported by the government sources being returned to the industries concerned. Thus the basic source of income for the surviving boards is now through employers contributions of about £106 million in 1982-83. Six of the seven boards use their statutory powers to raise a levy on employers in scope to that board. The seventh board covering the offshore petroleum industry uses an employer subscription system, a pattern also adopted by many of the organisations set up to replace the other boards known as non-statutory training organisations.

Employers' Contributions

The changes in the training board system reflects current government policy in the UK that the training of those in employment is the responsibility of the employer. All training provided by the private sector of industry (with the exception of grant aid for the Youth Training Scheme) is, therefore, not subsidised or supported by any public funds.

The amount of money spent by firms on training however cannot be easily estimated. Recent research, sponsored by the Manpower Services Commission suggested that some £2,000 million was allocated to training activities in 1984, accounting for 53 million training days per year. On average these figures showed that only £20,000 was spent per establishment; per trainee it was £575 a year and per employee £200 a year. Similarly a small survey of 134 British organisations conducted in 1985 revealed that 65 per cent of those participating spent less than 0.5 per cent of their annual turnover on training. These findings together with other research, prompted the Manpower Services Commission to undertake a major study of the motivation of companies to invest in training and to suggest measures to improve the situation, (see page 90).

Chapter 8

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES FOR THE UK'S SYSTEM

Introduction:

It is always difficult to make predictions, particularly when social and economic structures are undergoing considerable change, and developments in education and training are no exception. In a decade which started with major reforms in the industrial training infrastructure through the abolition of the industrial training boards, and the publication of the New Training Initiative which in itself brought about major changes in thinking, the full effects of these actions are probably still to be fully appreciated in themselves. Nevertheless the pace of change continues and the ideas and schemes stemming from the New Training Initiative will undoubtedly be modified and developed as new needs and problems are identified. This chapter seeks to record some areas of potential development and to explain what changes in the system are now being planned - the most significant possibly being the proposed expansion of the Youth Training Scheme described below:

Expansion of the Youth Training Scheme

Plans to increase the length of the one-year Youth Training Scheme, described on page 39, itself a relatively new concept, into a two year scheme, were first announced in the early part of 1985 and these are now well advanced. The enlarged scheme, will be operational in April 1986 and it is intended to provide 2 years' training for all 16 year old school leavers and 1 year for 17 year olds with an opportunity for all to obtain recognised vocational qualifications. It is intended that entry to the new scheme will depend on when young people leave full time education, rather than on their date of birth as is the case in the present scheme.

The design of the new scheme is based on five central principles:-

(i) the Scheme should be voluntary;

(ii) it should be coherent and consistent with other provisions;

(iii) it should offer high quality training;

(iv) it should be flexible; and

(v) it should be simple in its operation.

More emphasis is also being placed on an improved approach to quality control involving the introduction of a new training standards advisory group; nationally set criteria for design and content, and the approval of organisations offering training opportunities. In an effort to simplify the present structure of YTS, the different modes of YTS under the present scheme are to be merged into a single mode. A new funding structure is also being introduced and trainee allowances in second year will be significantly higher than in the first. The 13 weeks of off-the-job training involving a structured programme of learning away from the workplace provided for by the one year scheme will also be increased by including a further 7 weeks in the second year.

The expansion of the scheme, estimated to cost over a billion pounds in 1986-7, means that over half a million training places will be available.

Review of Vocational Qualifications

An integral feature of the new 2 year YTS is that it should afford the opportunity for young people to obtain a recognised vocational qualification but given the present range of options this aim poses a number of difficulties. In an effort to resolve these problems the government set up a committee in early 1985 to consider the structure of vocational qualifications in England and Wales. The task of this

group is to recommend a structure of vocational qualifications which:

- is relevant to the needs of people with a wide range of abilities;
- is comprehensible to users;
- recognises competence and capability in the application of knowledge and skill;
- provides opportunities for progression, including progression to higher education and professional qualifications;
- allows for the certification of education, training and work experience within an integrated programme;

and to design a timetabled programme to achieve this which has the support of employers, examining and validating bodies and others concerned.

Priority has been given to improving the structure of qualifications to meet the needs of the expanded YTS and an interim report was published in September 1985 which recommended that a limited number of bodies involved in standards setting, assessment and validation should be designated as appropriate agencies for YTS certification. The setting up of a YTS certification consortium however is only seen as an interim arrangement whilst the group considers the broader issues involved in bringing about major reforms in the vocational qualifications structures.

The effects of this review will be considerable but it is difficult to forecast what changes will be made and what other reforms in vocational education and training will be required as a result.

The Future of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative

The MSC's Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) as a vehicle of change in the education/training divide, so evident in the United Kingdom, is referred to later in this chapter, however, its impact as a programme is also significant. From relatively small beginnings in 1983, TVEI has expanded considerably and by the autumn of 1985 nearly 40,000 students in some 500 schools in Great Britain are now taking part in the scheme. Its introduction has resulted in major curricular and organisational changes and these achievements,

in such a short-time, have prompted a good deal of interest. The idea that all young people should have the opportunity of following a more relevant and practical curriculum has won wide-acceptance in government circles and ways of disseminating the lessons learned through TVEI are now being explored.

The Education/Industry Divide

The links between education and industry and the need to improve the present pattern of collaboration and dialogue has been subject to concern for a number of years. The setting up of various initiatives such as the PICKUP programme and the Local Collaborative Projects (LCPs), described earlier (page 48), demonstrate the new sense of urgency that surrounds this subject. Again it is difficult to predict what the long-term effects of such pump-priming activities will be but it is probably true to say that this effort of seeking closer collaboration between education and industry will continue to be a recurrent theme in future developments.

The Changing Focus of MSC

Some observers in the past have argued that the weaknesses in the UK's system will not be fully remedied until there is a fully integrated Ministry of Education and Training thereby combining the responsibilities of the separate government departments and the Manpower Services Commission. Such a step would be a political decision and the idea has already been rejected on a number of occasions. Nevertheless several significant developments in the educational world have been prompted by the Manpower Services Commission, and this in itself represents a break with tradition.

The implementation of TVEI and its subsequent expansion was the first stage in the MSC's involvement in the education world. However, TVEI has been followed by a number of other MSC based initiatives usually mounted at the government's request. In early 1985 the Commission began an interim scheme for the in-service training of teachers and further education lecturers related to technical and vocational education which will last for two years and cost £25 million. The most controversial development in this area came when the government announced its intention to increase the resources available to the MSC to purchase a greater amount of work-related non-advanced further education. In effect this decision represented a major change in educational finance policy and was the subject of considerable debate and resistance in the educational world. In the event a satisfactory arrangement to cope with this transfer of funding was concluded by the MSC and the local education authorities.

How far these moves represent either a fundamental change in the MSC's involvement in the educational world or are simply practical solutions to specific problems is open to conjecture. In terms of future developments, however, certainly the traditional roles of various government and other agencies are being modified to respond to new needs.

Financing of Vocational Training

Allied to the changes in educational funding is the more wide spread concern of the cost-effectiveness of the overall vocational training effort. Over the last two years several reports, including the highly influential 'Competence and Competition' have demonstrated the relatively poor investment record of UK companies in training.

Whilst a number of initiatives have already been launched, most notably the awareness campaign on adult training, to tackle this problem the MSC has also mounted an investigation into training finance. Again the outcomes of this study may well influence the pattern of vocational training in the last part of the 1980s.

ANNEX ONE

Bibliographic References and Further Reading

This section of the monograph does not seek to list the many and varied sources used in preparing this report but rather to suggest some additional material which may be of interest in following up some of the issues discussed. As part of its involvement in CEDEFOP's Information Network, the Association has already prepared a detailed bibliography on the vocational education and training systems in the United Kingdom which is listed below with other useful bibliographies.

1) Bibliographies

British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education

Vocational Education and Training in the United Kingdom: A Basic Annotated Bibliography.

Berlin, CEDEFOP 1984 68pp

Barker, M and Sharples, P.S

A Trainer's Guide to Youth Training Resources and Materials

London, BACIE 1985 16pp

Barker, M and Sharples, P.S

A Trainer's Guide to Open Learning Materials and Resources

London BACIE 1985 8pp

Barker, M

A Trainer's Guide to Adult Training Issues

London BACIE 1985 8pp

2) Suggested Further Reading

Cantor, L.M. & Roberts I.F.

Further Education Today. A Critical Review.

London Routledge & Kegan Paul 1983 265pp

Central Office of Information

Britain, 1985: An Official Handbook.

London HMSO 1985 423pp

Drake, K.

Vocational Training Finance: The UK Focus Study

Berlin CEDEFOP 1984 75pp

Department of Education and Science

Education Statistics for the United Kingdom

London HMSO Annually

Department of Education and Science

The Educational System of England and Wales

London HMSO 1982 64pp

Manpower Services Commission

Annual Report (1984-85)

Sheffield MSC 1985 55pp

Manpower Services Commission

Corporate Plan 1985-1989

Sheffield MSC 1985 47pp

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Technical and Vocational Education Initiative Review - 85

Sheffield MSC 1985 47pp

National Economic Development Council

Competence and Competition: Training and Education in the Federal Republic of Germany; the United States and Japan.

London NEDO 1984 93pp

Tight, M (Ed)

Education for Adults: Educational Opportunities for Adults (Vol.2)

Beckenham Croom Helm 1983 321pp

Pearson, R et.al

Education, Training and Employment

Aldershot Gower 1984 202pp

Russell, Russ

Further Education and Industrial Training in England and Wales.

Bristol: Further Education Staff College 1985 rev.ed., 64pp

Walsh, K & Pearson, R

UK Labour Market Guide

Aldershot Gower 1984 268pp

Note that the Association's Information Unit is pleased to provide further bibliographic details on request.

Annex II

SELECTED LIST OF ORGANISATIONS CONCERNED WITH TRAINING

(1) Government Departments

Department of Education and Science,
Elizabeth House,
York Road,
London SE1 7PH.

Department of Employment,
Caxton House,
Tothill Street,
London SW1H 9NA.

Manpower Services Commission,
Moorfoot,
Sheffield, S1 4PQ.

Scottish Education Department,
New St. Andrew's House,
Edinburgh, EH1

Welsh Education Office,
31 Cathedral Road,
Cardiff CF1 9UJ

Department of Education,
(Northern Ireland),
Rathgael House,
Balloo Road,
Bangor, Co. Down.

Department of Economic Development,
Netherleigh,
Massey Avenue,
Belfast BT4 2JP.

Offices of Cencus and Population,
St Catherines House,
10 Kingsway,
London WC2B 6JP.

(2) Educational Organisations

Business and Technician Education Council,
Central House,
Upper Woburn Place,
London, WC1H 0HH.

City & Guilds Of London Institute,
76 Portland Place,
London,
W1N 4AA.

Council for National Academic Awards,
344-54 Gray's Inn Road,
London,
WC1X 8BP

Further Education Staff College,
Coombe Lodge,
Blagdon,
Bristol BS18 6RG.

Further Education Unit,
Elizabeth House,
York Road,
London SE1 7PH

National Advisory Body,
Metropolis House,
39-45 Tottenham Court Road,
London, W1P 9RD

National Association of Teachers
in Further & Higher Education,
Hamilton House
Mabledon Place,
London WC1 9BH.

National Institution for
Adult Continuing Education,
196 De Montfort Street,
Leicester,
LE1 7GE

Open University,
Walton Hall,
Milton Keynes,
MK7 6AA

Royal Society of Arts,
6-8 John Adam Street,
London,
WC2 6EZ.

Schools Examination Council,
Newcombe House,
45 Notting Hill Gate,
London W11 3JB

University Grants Committee,
14 Park Crescent,
London,
W1N 4DN.

Workers Education Association,
Temple House,
9 Upper Berkeley Street,
London, W1H 8BY.

(3) Other National Organisations

British Association for Commercial
and Industrial Education,
16, Park Crescent,
London,
W1N 4AP

British Institute of
Management,
Management House,
Parket Street,
London WC2B 5PT.

Confederation of British Industry,
Centre Point,
New Oxford Street,
London WC1

Council for Educational
Technology,
3 Devonshire Street,
London W1N 2BA.

Equal Opportunities Commission,
Overseas House,
Quay Street,
Manchester,
M3 3HN.

Institute of Manpower Studies,
University of Sussex,
Mantell Buildings,
Falmer,
Brighton, BN1 9RF

Institute of Personnel Management,
IPM House,
Camp Road,
Wimbledon,
London, SW19 4UW

Institute of Training and
Development,
5 Baring Road,
Beaconsfield,
Bucks HP9 2NX

Trades Union Congress,
Great Russell Street,
London WC1B 3LS.

(4) Industrial Training Boards

Agricultural Training Board,
Bourne House,
32-34 Beckenham Road,
Beckenham,
Kent BR3 4PB

Construction Industry Training Board,
Radnor House,
1272 London Road,
Norbury,
London SW16 4EL

Hotel and Catering Industry
Training Board,
Ramsay House,
Central Square, Wembley,
Middlesex HA9 7AF

Offshore Petroleum Industry
Training Board,
Forties House,
Montrose
Angus,
Scotland

Plastics Processing Industry
Training Board,
Brent House,
950 Great West Road,
Brentford,
Middx TW8 9ES.

Clothing and Allied Products
Industry Training Board,
10th Floor, Tower House,
Merrion Way,
Leeds LS2 8NY

Engineering Industry Training
Board,
54 Clarendon Road,
Watford,
Herts WD1 1LB.

Local Government Training
Board,
8 The Arndale Centre,
Luton,
Bedfordshire LU1 2TS

Road Transport Industry
Training Board
Capitol House,
Empire Way,
Wembley,
Middx HA9 0NG

CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Vocational training in the United Kingdom

Steve Sharples
Vikki Carty

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

1987 — 110 pp. — 21.0 × 29.7 cm

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